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ABSTRACT

Foreign language instruction guidelines designed to improve and extend current programs at all levels are offered to teachers, principals, guidance counselors, general supervisors, foreign language coordinators, and superintendents. Major emphasis on teaching a language is developed, particularly through remarks on the spoken and the written word. Testing and evaluation, learning aids and materials, the language learner, sequential programs, and notes to the administrator and the counselor are individually treated. Observations on the philosophy, objectives, and outcomes of foreign language instruction, as well as remarks on the nature of languages, are included. The appendix contains: (1) a letter to parents, (2) discussion of teacher qualifications, (3) areas and content of competence (for Latin teachers), (4) evaluative criteria for foreign language programs, and (5) a list of foreign language associations. A bibliography is accompanied by additional suggested readings. (RL)

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FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN VIRGINIA SCHOOLS

Foreign Language Service
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FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

IN

VIRGINIA SCHOOLS

PREFACE

In recent years recognition of the need for more and better trained speakers of foreign languages has led to expanding enrollments, changing instructional techniques, and new demands on language teachers and administrators. These factors subsequently were reflected in the need for more services by the State Department of Education to assist with the improvement and expansion of foreign language instruction. This publication is one means by which the Department responds to this need. It has been prepared to answer questions which are frequently asked of the Foreign Language Service and to deal with some of the issues commonly discussed among members of the profession.

An effective foreign language program must be unified by common goals and similar approaches from its beginning to its termination. The beginning can be in the elementary classroom; the termination can be as late as the graduate school. All foreign languages, classical and modern, share common goals and techniques of instruction; and they are usually organized within the same department of schools and colleges. Because the foreign language program in Virginia is viewed as a whole, regardless of language or level, this publication is directed to teachers of all languages and levels, principals, guidance counselors, general supervisors, foreign language coordinators, superintendents, and others who have an interest, direct or indirect, in foreign language instruction.

Although some chapters or headings appear to be applicable to particular groups concerned with foreign language instruction, each individual should be acquainted with the concerns of the others. The high school teacher, therefore, could profit from reviewing the chapter directed to the training of teachers; and the administrator should be acquainted with the methodology of the classroom.

The guide is not a methodology textbook; materials of this nature are available to the teacher from other sources. Nor can a publication for all foreign language teachers of the State become a course of study to establish local guidelines for coverage of material. It is a guide and a handbook which should be read as a whole or by sections, and it should be reviewed periodically as an influence on professional thinking and on instruction.

A guide cannot and indeed should not provide all of the answers to questions which arise; however, it should aid in the search for answers, a process which establishes the good of the past and replaces the unsatisfactory with new solutions. This guide endeavors to add a pillar to the structure of thinking upon which the teacher and the administrator can build a better language program.

This material was prepared by the staff of the Foreign Language Service: Miss Helen P. Warriner, Supervisor; Mrs. Jean W. Payne, Assistant Supervisor; and Mrs. Lottye W. Russell, Assistant Supervisor. Assisting the staff were the following members of the Curriculum Guide Committee (positions listed are those which were current at the time the guide was in preparation): Mrs. Lillian T. Bridges, Teacher of Latin, Loudoun County High School, Leesburg; Dr. Joachim Bruhn, Chairman of Modern Languages, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg; Mrs. Helga B. Fagg, Instructor of German and French, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg; Mrs. Geraldine R. Fedors, Teacher of Latin, James Blair High School, Williamsburg; Mr. Nathaniel H. Forbes, Head of Foreign Language Department, Waynesboro High School, Waynesboro; Mr. David W. Gurney, Teacher of Spanish, First Colonial High School, Virginia Beach; Miss Jeannette E. Irvine, Teacher of French, Dunbar High School, Lynchburg; Mrs. Virginia T. Kirkwood, Director of Pupil Personnel Services, Roanoke City Public Schools, Roanoke; Mr. Daniel C. Link, Jr., Assistant Supervisor of Research, Division of Educational Research and Statistics, State Department of Education, Richmond; Mr. George G. MacFarlane, Instructor of French and German, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg; Mrs. Pearl S. McDonald, Supervisor of Foreign Languages, Arlington County Public Schools, Arlington; Mrs. Norma R. Morrison, Teacher of Latin, Clarke County High School, Berryville; Mr. Raymond T. Ourand, Teacher of German, Francis C. Hammond High School, Alexandria; Dr. A. G. Richardson, Associate Director, Division of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Richmond; Mrs. Inez M. Root, Coordinator of Foreign Languages, Chesapeake City Public Schools, Chesapeake; Mr. Gareth W. Rose, Supervisor of Foreign Languages, Fairfax County Public Schools, Fairfax; Mr. Abbott Saks, Helping Teacher in Foreign Languages, Norfolk City Public Schools, Norfolk; Mrs. Virginia B. Stone, Teacher of Latin, Liberty High School, Bedford; Mrs. Ruth M. Wright, Teacher of French, Jefferson Davis Junior High School, Hampton.

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WOODROW W. WILKERSON
Superintendent of Public Instruction

CONTENTS

Page

Preface ii

Acknowledgments vii

Chapter

I PHILOSOPHY, OBJECTIVES, AND OUTCOMES.. 1

II CONCERNING LANGUAGE 4
- The Nature and Function of Language................ 4
- Aspects and Processes of Language Learning.......... 6
- Developments in Language Teaching................ 7

III TEACHING A LANGUAGE...................... 10
  - Modern Foreign Languages 11
  - Latin 12
- Contrastive Linguistic Analysis 12
- Teacher's Manuals 17
- Lesson Planning 17
- Prereading Period 18
- Techniques of Drilling 19
- Asking Questions 21
- Homework 21
- The Spoken Word 21
  - Comprehension 21
  - Pronunciation 23
  - Communication 24
  - Dialogue 25
- Grammar 27
- The Written Word 27
  - Reading 28
  - Vocabulary Learning 31
  - Reading Materials 32
  - Translation 32
  - Literature 34
  - Writing 36
- Levels of Style in Language Usage 40
- Culture 42

IV TESTING AND EVALUATION 45
- The Purposes of Testing 45
- Kinds of Tests 45
- Evaluation of Tests 46
- The Nature of Testing 48
- Test Follow-up 49
- Modern Language Testing 50

Latin Testing 52
Sample Test Items 53
Evaluation of Instruction 54

V LEARNING AIDS AND MATERIALS 55
Basal Texts 55
Supplementary Materials 57
Audio-Visual Aids 58

VI THE LANGUAGE LEARNER 63
The Nature of Learning 63
Learning a Foreign Language 64
Age and Learning 66
  The Elementary School Child 66
  The Junior High School Child 68
  The Senior High School Student 70

VII SEQUENTIAL PROGRAMS 73
Definition of Terminology 73
Sequences in Virginia Schools 73
Summary of the Six-year, Five-level Sequence in Modern Languages 74
Summary of the Five-year, Five-level Sequence in Latin. 79
The Need for Coordination 84
General Observations about Sequences and Their Development 86

VIII INSTRUCTIONAL PERSONNEL 89
The Foreign Language Teacher 89
Qualifications of the Teacher 90
Basic Components of Undergraduate Foreign Language Education 91
Continuing Education 93
The Department Chairman 94
The Foreign Language Supervisor 94
The Foreign Language Specialist in the State Department of Education 98
Participation in Foreign Language Associations 98
Conclusions 99

IX NOTES TO THE ADMINISTRATOR AND THE COUNSELOR 100
Notes to the Administrator 100
  Curriculum 100
  Guidelines for Foreign Language Programs 103
    Elementary Schools 103
    Secondary Schools 104
  Instructional Personnel 105

Page

Classroom 108
Materials and Equipment 109
Evaluation of Instruction 109
Parents 110
The Role of the Counselor 110

APPENDIX

A Letter to Parents 114
B Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages 114
C Areas and Content of Competence [for Latin Teachers].... 116
D Evaluative Criteria for Foreign Languages 119
E Foreign Language Associations 125
BIBLIOGRAPHY 127
ADDITIONAL SUGGESTED READINGS 129

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CHAPTER I

PHILOSOPHY, OBJECTIVES, AND OUTCOMES

THE public school is an institution of a democratic society established to provide educational opportunities for all children. Every young Virginian, as every other young American, has equal and inalienable rights to avail himself of these opportunities.

None of the advantages given to the students is more beneficial than the opportunity to learn a foreign language. Knowledge in this area is a universal tool that opens doorways to human understanding and diversified cultures and provides a means by which the youth of Virginia can be better equipped to become world citizens.

Unless children have severe physical, mental, or emotional handicaps, they are capable of language learning; in fact, they master the basic structure and vocabulary of their mother tongue before entering the first grade. The processes and conditions involved in learning a second language are similar to those involved in learning the native language. All children who have learned one language can learn another.

The public schools, therefore, are responsible for offering every young Virginian the opportunity to learn a second language, regardless of the curriculum in which he is enrolled, his vocational intentions, or his previous scholastic achievement.

The language teacher is responsible for seeking effective methods of instruction which make second language learning possible for all students who desire it.

This guide is based on the following philosophy:

- All children should have the opportunity to study a second language
- Language learning should provide knowledge of humanistic and practical values
- Students should gain deeper comprehension of their own culture through the exploration of another
- Second language learning should be a pleasurable and intellectually profitable experience
- Stress should be placed on oral and written communication as vehicles of international understanding.

The main purpose of foreign language teaching is to help the student acquire an additional medium of communication. This objective, in turn, may be subdivided into two categories: linguistic and cultural.[1]

The linguistic objectives include the ability:

- To understand the foreign language when it is spoken at normal speed, and when it is concerned with subject matter commensurate with the student's experience
- To communicate effectively in the spoken language using standards of pronunciation, intonation, and structure acceptable to educated native speakers
- To read and comprehend, without recourse to direct translation, material of average difficulty on a given level
- To write on topics within the scope of the learner's experience using authentic patterns of the foreign language.

This guide emphasizes the necessity for teaching *all* language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Scales are not balanced if they are weighted too heavily on one side, nor does language learning attain complete success if it is encompassed in less than total instruction. To be literate, to communicate directly, and to reach full cultural understanding, a student must acquire an adequate command of oral and written language skills. The noted linguist, Mario Pei, in referring to proficiency in reading and writing, says, "The written language, particularly in these days of widespread literacy, ought not to be neglected. Even on the practical side, the written form of a foreign language is indispensable. . ." [2]

The ultimate linguistic aim for the teaching of Latin is the ability to read materials of normal complexity with fluency and understanding, avoiding laborious word-for-word translation. Although less emphasis is placed on the acquisition of listening and speaking skills, they should not be neglected. In fact, the student's first introduction to Latin should be through hearing and speaking the patterns of the language. Practice in these two areas leads to greater comprehension of printed matter.

The cultural objectives of language learning should include the following goals:

- Understanding and appreciating the national and individual mores of foreign people
- Knowledge of the history and significant physical features of the areas where the language is spoken

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[1] Theodore Huebener, *How To Teach Foreign Languages Effectively*. Rev. ed. (New York University Press, 1965), p. 4.

[2] Mario Pei, *Language for Everybody*, 3rd printing. (New York: The Devin-Adair Company, 1961), pp. 14-15.

- Comprehension of the foreign culture's political and economic development
- Appreciation of the fine arts and science of the foreign people and their contributions to world civilization
- Awareness of language as the basic factor in cultural communication.

An effective language program should produce both tangible and intangible outcomes which include:

- Acquisition of language skills which give the student a new channel of communication and means of self-expression
- Appreciation of the foreign people's contribution to the development of our nation
- Insight into a deeper knowledge of the native language. According to Goethe, the German philosopher, "He who does not know a foreign language, knows nothing of his own"
- Motivation to continue the study of a second language in depth, and to undertake the learning of other languages, ancient and modern
- Knowledge, appreciation, and acceptance of a foreign culture
- Appreciation for the aesthetic qualities of language
- The realization that language learning can be pleasurable, and that hard work and pleasure need not be separated
- An understanding of the necessity for acceptable standards of accuracy in the preparation of all material, spoken and written
- Increased development of good listening habits and auditory discrimination
- Decided growth in efficient study habits
- Extension of English vocabulary
- Acquisition of ideals which help pave the way to international harmony
- Attainment of attitudes of tolerance, cooperation, acceptance of responsibility, self-discipline, and scholarliness
- Awareness of the humanitarian worth of second language learning, and of the direct benefits accrued to the welfare and happiness of mankind.

CHAPTER II

CONCERNING LANGUAGE

THE NATURE AND FUNCTION OF LANGUAGE

THE nature and function of language should be examined before consideration is given to the many facets of language learning. What is language? It is a set of symbols used by members of a group to convey meaning. The symbols may be vocal or written, or may include signs or signals that are accepted as tools for transmitting thoughts and ideas.

Human speech, with its patterned system of articulate vocal sounds, is the basis of all language. Although movements of the hands, face, and body may be used to emphasize and sometimes clarify the thought expressed, such actions are not speech, in themselves; they emanate from the spoken word, a symbol in itself of thoughts and objects.

Writing, also, is not speech but a representation of the spoken word. "Thus, with a visual system of representation, we are two removes from reality. . . . It is as well to stay as close to reality as possible; that is why the study of language is a study of sounds and what sounds can do." [1]

For sounds to be language, they must be more than mere noises produced by the human speech organs and transmitted from one person to another via sound waves. They must also "be based upon a previous understanding among their users that they carry certain definite meanings." [2] Each language possesses its own sequences of sound which have particular meanings.

Each language, moreover, has its own pattern, unique to its native speakers and independent of the patterns of other languages.[3] This is easily discernible when solving a crossword puzzle. For example, the speaker of English, when he discovers that he has written the initial consonant cluster *zdr* rejects it immediately. A Russian speaker, however, would quickly accept the same sound-combination pattern.

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[1] Anthony Burgess, *Language Made Plain* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1965), p. 13.

[2] Pei, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 110.

Language patterns differ: the initial combination of the sound pattern *zdr* is possible in Russian but inconceivable in English.[4]

No language is uniform for all who speak it. Differences are expressed in idiolects and in dialects: idiolect refers to the speech pattern of a single individual at a particular time in his life; dialect to that of an entire group of people situated in a certain geographic area and in constant communication with one another. Among forces contributing to dialectal differences are conquest and occupation, population migrations, immigrations, physical geography, and social structure.[5]

Language is in a constant state of change which permeates all its segments—sounds, words, structure, and meaning. Of all the segments, sounds are the most stable. Any language which has ceased to be spoken has ceased to change and is considered "dead." This word, however, when applied to a language does not mean exactly what it implies. For instance, Latin, although not an active spoken language, exists as a living entity through its influence on Western philosophy, customs, and language.

Language is learned behavior; therefore, man is not born with the knowledge of speech but must have an example to follow.

"All languages and dialects are of equal merit, each in its own way." [6] Some people, nevertheless, consider certain languages to be more desirable than others. Among the reasons they give are the following: the number of native speakers, the artistic merit of the literature, or even the sheer beauty of the sounds themselves. Yet, no language is either superior or inferior to another; for example, in relation to vocabulary and grammar, the language of so-called backward peoples may be as highly sophisticated as that of supposedly civilized communities. In other words, a language that meets the needs of a social group is a satisfactory system of communication for that particular culture. If and when the demands of the group change, the language also will change.

Class differences inevitably arise and cause a social stratification in language. These differences may be based on factors that are "educational, economic, social, or occupational. . ." [7] Actually, "there is no such thing as good and bad (or correct and incorrect, grammatical and ungrammatical, right and wrong) in language." [8] There is only that which is socially acceptable. What may be accepted as the "correct" speech by one class may be rejected by another; in fact, the divergence in vocabulary may be so great that it reduces or prevents communication between the two groups.

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[4] *Loc. cit.*

[5] Jean Malmstrom and Annabel Ashley, *Dialects—U. S. A.* (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963), pp. 4-7.

[6] Robert A. Hall, Jr., *Linguistics and Your Language* (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1960), p. 6.

[7] Pei, *op. cit.*, p. 108.

[8] Hall, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

By understanding the nature and function of language, a greater appreciation for its benefits is gained. In the words of Anthony Burgess, well-known English novelist,

> . . . We must avoid making quick judgements, laying down the law, nursing prejudices, sneering, waving jingoistic flags, bringing a spirit of petty parochialism to the great world of human language. Languages are made by the people for the people, and people must use language as their needs dictate . . . If we want to understand the phenomenon of language—and it is an astonishing one—we must approach it in humility, letting what-should-be wait upon what-is.[9]

ASPECTS AND PROCESSES OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

Among the disciplines concerned with the aspects and processes of language learning, three are classified as sciences: cultural anthropology, descriptive linguistics, and psychology.[10] These disciplines have contributed immeasurably to the new language programs. They have furnished knowledge of the inner workings and qualities of language and have provided deeper awareness of the manner in which language is learned.

"Culture," a word that is not new but newly defined, occupies a center-of-the-stage position in present-day language teaching. Its basic meaning which refers to growth in animals and plants was extended metaphorically long ago to allude to education, training, tastes, and manners of people. In the nineteenth century, culture was related to intellectual attainments of phases of civilization. Today anthropologists define culture as the sum total of behavior patterns in a given society. This definition has brought into focus the necessity for learning language in authentic cultural context. Language, the central element in any culture, "is influenced by and in turn influences everything that the speaking community does;"[11] therefore, to understand a language is to understand a culture. This interrelation of culture and language is observed in the following:

> The tone of voice of a person when he is acting as a leader; the very special elaboration of status and deference forms developed by the Japanese to fit their highly structured hierarchies; in our own society the deferential ways of talking to individuals who are ranked higher in work or status situations (nurses to doctors, privates to captains, captains to generals, etc.).[12]

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[9] Burgess, *op. cit.*, pp. 7-8.

[10] Nelson Brooks, *Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice.* 2nd ed. (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964), p. 234.

[11] Pei, *op. cit.*, p. 107.

[12] Edward T. Hall, *The Silent Language* (New York: Fawcett World Library, 1964), pp. 47-48.

Descriptive linguistics, "the discipline which studies languages in terms of their internal structures,"[13] is concerned primarily with the "expression facet" of language. It is also concerned with describing individual language and dialect and with developing a general theory of language. The contributions of linguistics to language learning are extensive. For example, linguistics:

- Describes best what is to be taught
- Catalogues characteristics of a language
- Presents a thorough study of sounds, forms, and patterns and describes their distribution
- Provides simple descriptive rules of grammar
- Furnishes information concerning the relation of the sounds of a language to its orthography
- Provides techniques for ascertaining details of the language system when little is known about the language
- Points out through a contrastive analysis of two languages those aspects (a) which are likely to be transferred, (b) which will be difficult, (c) which will have to be unlearned, and (d) which will require new sets of habits
- Makes stress and intonation patterns obvious
- Describes effectively how to fix habits, how to test, and how to prepare and present teaching materials.

Psychology, the last of the three disciplines mentioned, has made available an intimate knowledge of language learning processes. This is observed in four assumptions set forth by a well-known psychologist.[14]

Assumption 1.	Foreign-language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation.
Assumption 2.	Language skills are learned more effectively if items of the foreign language are presented in spoken form before written form.
Assumption 3.	Analogy provides a better foundation for foreign-language learning than analysis.
Assumption 4.	The meanings which the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a matrix of allusions to the culture of the people who speak that language.

DEVELOPMENTS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

In the last few pages reference was made to the significant contributions of anthropology, linguistics, and psychology to the "new" concepts of language learning. The conditions under which these concepts evolved should be examined briefly.

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[13] H. A. Gleason, Jr., *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics.* Rev. ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961), p. iii.

[14] Wilga M. Rivers, *The Psychologist and the Foreign-Language Teacher* (The University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 19, 21, 22.

A review of foreign language teaching in the United States reveals that instructional objectives have fluctuated and have reflected the changing nature of education. Prior to the establishment of public education, the majority of students studied a foreign language (most likely French) under private tutelage. The tutor, usually a native of the country whose language he taught, instructed his young students in the oral aspects of language. Even Latin and Greek instruction felt the influence of this emphasis.

After the initiation of public education in this country, the constantly increasing number of students necessitated a larger supply of teachers. Since a sufficient number of native speakers were not available to serve as teachers, the objectives of foreign language teaching were shifted to emphasize reading and writing. This change of emphasis reflected the circumstances of the times rather than the ideal outcomes of instruction. The American Classical League in 1924-25, and the Modern Language Association in 1931, issued statements which reinforced the primary stress on reading and writing.[15] These statements, which generated considerable controversy, nevertheless, exerted a strong influence on foreign language education for a number of years.

In 1933, Bloomfield expressed one of the first opinions of the linguists when he observed that:

> The large part of the work in high schools and colleges that has been devoted to foreign language study includes an appalling waste of effort; not one pupil in a hundred learns to speak and understand, or even to read a foreign language. The mere disciplinary or 'transfer' value of learning the arbitrary glossemes of a foreign language can be safely estimated at almost nil. The realization of all this has led to much dispute, particularly as to methods of foreign language teaching. The various 'methods' which have been elaborated differ greatly in the mere exposition, but far less in actual class room practice. The result depends very little upon the theoretical basis of presentation and very much upon the conditions of teaching and on the competence of the teacher; it is only necessary to avoid certain errors to which our tradition inclines . . .
>
> The pupil who takes up his first foreign language at high school age or later is likely to substitute an analysis for mere repetition and thus to meet half-way the incompetent teacher, who talks about the foreign language instead of using it. Between the two, they have kept alive the eighteenth-cen-

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[15] John B. Carroll, *The Study of Language* (Harvard University Press, 1963), pp. 171-172.

> tury scheme of pseudo-grammatical doctrine and puzzle-solving translation.[16]

The advice of Bloomfield and other linguists went unheeded, however, until World War II when many Americans suddenly needed to communicate with and understand the nature of peoples who did not speak English. Two new goals, listening comprehension and speaking, had to be added to the reading and writing objectives. The teaching profession, however, not knowing how to achieve the new objectives, turned to the linguists for assistance. Thus began a revolution in foreign language teaching which spread throughout the nation and extended beyond its boundaries to other countries. The revolution gradually became a continuing evolution.

The significant result has been not a "method" of teaching, as some think, but rather the realization by foreign language teachers that their knowledge of foreign language instruction was inadequate for the task at hand. A search, therefore, was instituted to find better ways to achieve all of the desired goals.

Many new techniques were simply rediscovered; others were developed. The linguists played a major role in dispelling complacency and in leading the profession in its efforts to teach more languages more effectively to more students. The foreign language profession has not found solutions to all of the problems it has encountered. In the opinion of many, however, constant practice of the language on a linguistic basis has led to rewarding results.

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[16] Leonard Bloomfield, *Language* (New York: Holt, 1933), pp. 503, 505.

CHAPTER III

TEACHING A LANGUAGE

METHODOLOGICAL terminology! "Traditional," "grammar-translation," "indirect," "direct," "mim-mem," "aural-oral," "audio-lingual," "structural," "four-skills." These titles generated by language specialists have led to confusion and misunderstandings among teachers, school personnel, and the public. Effective language teaching rests not in the designation of a title but in the fulfillment of specified goals.

There is not a best method of teaching foreign languages. Methods and techniques vary. So do teachers and students. The teacher brings to the classroom ". . . his attitudes and competencies which are the result of his own experiences with people and society."[1] No two teachers, therefore, handle the materials or inspire performance in the same way. In a like manner, no two students react to a learning situation identically since each brings to the class diverse concepts and abilities.

As far as is known, there is no single method that attends to all dissimilarities found among teachers and students. Many individuals, however, with experience in language analysis, teaching techniques, and learning processes now seem to agree that there are four essential characteristics of foreign language instruction. Wilga Rivers summarizes the characteristics as follows:[2]

> 1. Items are normally presented and learned in their spoken form before they are presented in their written form.
> 2. Teaching methods rest upon the careful scientific analysis of the contrasts between the learner's language and the target language.
> 3. Stress is laid on the need for overlearning of language patterns by a special type of drill known as 'pattern practice.'

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[1] Ruth R. Cornfield, *Foreign Language Instruction: Dimensions and Horizons* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1966), p. 28.

[2] John B. Carroll, *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, edited by N. Gage (Chicago: Rand-McNally & Company, 1960), summarized by Rivers, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

4. There is an insistence on the desirability, or even the necessity, of learning to make responses in situations which simulate 'real-life' communication situations as closely as possible.

Good teaching is multifaceted and not merely a mechanical process.

> It involves a teacher operating in the complex inter-personal relationships of the classroom. Satisfactory methods depend, to a great extent, upon how the teacher comprehends the nature and conditions of learning coupled with his instructional aims and purposes. The skillful and sensitive teacher will set the stage for desirable, appropriate, and satisfactory learning experiences . . . . The artful teacher will use many methods, and will show many sides of the material he is teaching so as to reach the interest of as many learners as possible. The success or failure of his procedures will be seen in the light of the effects on the learner, and in the changes in his performance. If he has learned, he will perform well; if he has not been reached, he will perform imperfectly or not at all. This may be as much a reflection on the teacher and his procedures and techniques as it is a reflection on the student and his ability to learn and perform.[8]

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

In the light of goals previously stated, the emphasis that modern foreign language instruction places upon verbal behavior is indeed relevant.

The skills of such behavior are best developed when the student is immersed to the greatest degree possible in an atmosphere which simulates the foreign culture and which avoids interference with native language habits.

For the most effective instruction, therefore, the teacher should surround his students with an authentic cultural setting and provide them with a prereading period which offers concentrated practice of the foreign language sounds without recourse to the graphic symbol.

This means, of course, withholding the use of the textbook until the student learns to recognize the foreign sounds and to produce them with proper pronunciation, intonation, and rhythm.

> Our students come to us with very fixed language habits. They have acquired the structure and sound system of their own language. They have learned how these sounds relate to a set of written symbols. These symbols have become so interrelated in the student's mind with the sounds they represent that they are not recognized as symbols but as sounds. If we are to be successful in teaching our student another sound system, we must divorce him, while in the foreign language classroom, from the symbols he has learned. The

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[8] Cornfield, *op. cit.*, pp. 28-29.

> symbols he verbalizes are the sound values of his native language. He must be free of everything that relates to the sound of his mother tongue.[4]

LATIN

Latin is a foreign language and should be learned for the unique values which it alone possesses. As has been previously stated, no two languages are exactly alike. Differences exist in all areas of phonology, morphology, vocabulary, and syntax. Too often, Latin is considered as an instrument to teach English grammar. This is a grievous error: English grammar is not Latin grammar. If the study of Latin is to survive in the midst of modern Babelism, then it must occupy its rightful niche as a foreign language and not serve solely as a crutch for other languages.

It is accepted that the emphasis placed on the acquisition of the hearing and speaking skills is less in Latin than in modern foreign languages. A healthy exposure to these skills, however, is imperative if the Latin student is to reach one of the principal goals of his language learning—pleasurable reading for cultural understanding and individual development. Unfortunately, innumerable Latin learners can give halting, inadequate, and meaningless translations; few can read with comprehension.

The fact that Latin is a foreign, not a native, language and should be taught and learned as such makes unnecessary any dichotomy between the teaching methods of Latin and those of modern foreign languages. The following pages in this section offer information and recommendations to teachers of *all* languages. The degree of applicability of the suggested techniques will vary according to whether the language is Latin or a modern tongue, but all procedures are relevant and none should be completely divorced from the whole.

Contrastive Linguistic Analysis

This phrase simply signifies ". . . the comparison of any two languages and cultures to discover and describe the problems that the speakers of one of the languages will have in learning the other."[5]

A point by point comparison of a linguistic description of the two languages concerned involves the areas of sound, grammar, vocabulary, writing, and culture. The student who studies a foreign language will find features in all of these areas which may be similar to or different from those of his native tongue. Generally speaking, items which are similar will be easy to learn, while those that are different will be difficult.

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[4] *Ibid.*, p. 33.

[5] Robert Lado, *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers* (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1957), preface.

There are many contrasting patterns to be found in each area in every language. Several illustrations follow:

SOUND

German

> A very troublesome vowel distinction . . . is the one between the vowel /ə/ (bitte) and the usual German pronunciation of -er at the end of a word. Here German does not use an r-like pronunciation at all, but the variant of /r/ that is used in this position is really a vowel, very much like the /e/ in bitte, but with the tongue slightly more drawn back. Since English has only one /e/ sound (which admits a great range of variants), you may, as a native speaker of English, have a problem in hearing the distinction between bitte/bitter, Wette/Wetter, etc.[6]

INTONATION PROBLEMS (stress, juncture, pitch)

French

> "Of all the commonly taught languages, French is probably the most different from English from the standpoint of intonation. The difficulties manifest themselves in comprehension as well as speaking. In the main they consist of the following:
>
> (1) English has a phonemic stress accent (. . . díscus, discúss, . . .). French has no stress accent. The result is that all syllables of the word have about equal length and stress (only the last syllable of the word or word group is somewhat lengthened). For a speaker of English it is very difficult to say a word like liberté, accident, philosophie without stressing one syllable more than the others and without shortening or swallowing some syllables.
>
> (2) French has, for all practical purposes at least, no special junctures of the English type to mark word boundaries. It is spoken not in words but rather in syllables

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[6] Robert L. Politzer, *Foreign Language Learning: A Linguistic Introduction* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965), p. 97.

> that tend to end in vowels. Thus . . . Il est arrivé is i - le(s) - ta - rri - vé—phonetically [i lɛ ta ri ve]. The result is a major speaking and comprehension problem."[7]

Chinese

> Pitch, the voice quality we describe as high or low on a musical scale, is used in two distinct ways in language: (1) as part of the sentence and phrase, and (2) as part of the word. English uses voice pitch as part of the sentence and phrase but not as part of the word. Chinese, on the other hand, uses voice pitch as part of the word. The pitch, or tone, is as much a part of a Chinese word as are the sound segments; changing the tone can change one word into another word.[8] For example:
>
> > . . . Chinese ma (with high level tone) 'mother', ma (with high rising tone) 'hemp', ma (with low rising tone) 'horse' and ma (with low falling tone) 'scold'.[9]
>
> When pitch is used with phrases and sentences, we call it intonation. When pitch is used to identify and differentiate words, we call it tone. Chinese is a tone language. English is not a tone language; it is an intonation language. . . . The problems of learning the pitch system of a foreign language will vary depending on whether both the native and foreign languages are intonation languages or one is a tone language.[10]

GRAMMAR

Latin

A study of the contrasts in structure between English and Latin will indicate problem areas; however, an approach that has commonly been used tends to ignore the contrastive features of the two languages and considers, instead,

> . . . the grammar of English to be virtually identical with that of Latin, thus effectively concealing from the student the real source of difficulty. An example would be such statements as 'In Latin, as in English, there are three genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter.' English does not have the feature of gender,

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[7] *Ibid.*, p. 101.
[8] Lado, *op. cit.*, p. 36.
[9] Robert A. Hall, Jr., *op. cit.*, p. 80.
[10] Lado, *op. cit.*, p. 36.

at least as we understand it in Latin, where there is an obligatory agreement of noun and adjective.[11]

VOCABULARY

One of the difficulties students encounter with learning words of a foreign language arises when ". . . the foreign language makes a compulsory distinction within a concept by using different words, while English covers the same ground with just one expression."[12]

Spanish

"English to be/Spanish ser, estar
Jorge es inteligente [George is intelligent.]
Jorge está cansado [George is tired.]

English know/Spanish saber, conocer
Sé que Vd. tiene razón [I know that you are right.]
Conozco al señor Smith [I know Mr. Smith.]"[13]

WRITING

A comparison of two language systems, Russian and English in this case, which use different alphabets but which have some similar symbols will reveal several difficulties. A principal problem is encountered when similar symbols represent different sounds.

Russian

Russian Symbol		English Symbol
H	representing	[*n*]
p	representing	[*r*]
y	representing	[*u*]
b	representing	[*j*]

"The English writer will tend to use the English letters commonly used to represent the sounds which are similar . . . thus he might want to write noon for Russian Hyh [nun]."[14]

The English reader, likewise, "will tend to read the Russian letters with the sounds the similar English letters would have. Example: Russian HyH might be read as *[hai]."[15]

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[11] Waldo E. Sweet and Judith B. Moore, *Artes Latinae: A Teacher's Manual* (Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1966), p. 5.

[12] Politzer, *op. cit.*, p. 127.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 128.

[14] Lado, *op. cit.*, p. 104.

[15] *Loc. cit.*

(The symbol * is used to indicate a form cited as either unattested or known to be impossible—Gleason, *op. cit.*, p. 55.)

CULTURE

Spanish

A comparison of cultures often reveals linguistic evidence which is interesting and informative. Two examples follow:

> A number of vocabulary items that are applicable both to animals and to humans in English have separate words for animals and for humans in Spanish. In English both animals and persons have *legs.* In Spanish, animals have *patas* (animal legs) and humans have *piernas* (human legs).[16]

The linguistic evidence suggests that in Hispanic culture, a distinction between man and animal is made which is not observed in English speaking cultures.

Latin

> . . . there are two words for *uncle* in Latin; one is *avunculus* and the other is *patruus.* But they are not synonyms. The first is your mother's brother; the second is your father's brother. Your uncle on your mother's side is not the same person as your uncle on your father's side: Why do speakers of English give them the same name? The answer is that we classify this relationship in a different way from the Romans. The difference between *patruus* and *avunculus* was important to a Roman boy because if his father died, his *patruus* usually became his guardian. In such ways as these, languages reflect differences in cultures.[17]

Significance for Teaching

A knowledge of contrastive linguistic analysis will enable the teacher to do the following:

- Predict areas of difficulty and prepare or select corrective exercises
- Possess advance knowledge of which features are going to cause problems and arrange for sequential presentation from easy to difficult
- Diagnose speech problems and devise effective "articulatory recipes" for their solution

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[16] *Ibid.*, p. 116.

[17] Waldo E. Sweet, Ruth Swan Craig, and Gerda M. Seligson, *Latin: A Structural Approach* (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1966), p. xiii.

- Recognize which features of the native language the student is substituting and quickly effect a remedy
- Possess a true knowledge of the cultural patterns of the native and foreign peoples and guide the student toward an accurate understanding of *both* cultures.

Teacher's Manuals

Teachers should read, study, and reread the teacher's manuals accompanying their respective texts. The manuals should become, indeed, well-worn handbooks. These manuals exist to guide the teacher through a labyrinth of materials, some of which may be new and unfamiliar. Aside from the many suggestions for use of such materials, the manuals include articulatory descriptions of the foreign language sounds, recommended scheduling of class time, and sample test questions.

The basic principles of the manuals should be followed closely, particularly when a teacher is first using a book new to him. He should feel free, however, to deviate from recommended procedures *only when he is confident that his knowledge of basic methodology and his careful assessment of his own students and circumstances suggest a better approach.*

Lesson Planning

Anticipatory teaching, as Huebener calls lesson planning, is essential for both the experienced and the beginning teacher. It is realized that the latter needs a more detailed plan, but even the teacher who has taught and used the same material for several years requires a definite guide.

Lesson planning is both long and short range. An overall view of the year's work should be outlined first and then time divisions designated in order to reach the desired outcomes. An effective lesson plan

- Sets forth definite aims
- Specifies materials to be learned
- Indicates procedures to be used
- Stresses continuity of instruction by relating each lesson to previous and future learning activities
- Assures economical and orderly conduct of class.

In addition, the daily lesson plan

- Provides for motivation
- Is concise yet comprehensive
- Indicates specific items to be taught
- Designates definite time limits for each activity
- Allows for the learning of all four skills
- Includes a variety of procedures and activities

- Incorporates review material
- Introduces new material.

Teachers are urged to study carefully the lesson plans found in their respective teacher's manuals.

Prereading Period

The prereading period is a block of time at the beginning of Level I instruction when textbooks are not used and students are not introduced to the printed word in the foreign language. The purpose of this period is to establish accurate pronunciation and habits of syntax without the interference of the native alphabet and word order.

More effective learning will take place if students and parents alike realize the importance of the prereading phase. The "Letter to Parents," as presented in Appendix A, p. 114, will be helpful in bringing about such realization. The teacher can contribute to the efficacy of the prereading period by outlining, during the first class meeting, the goals of the course and the student's responsibility in attaining them.

Homework

Homework should be provided during the prereading period for two reasons:

(1) To establish regular out-of-class study habits. (The student who is assigned no homework during this time is apt to ignore the necessity for such study and to neglect it seriously when the prereading period is completed.)

(2) To make firm the status of foreign language learning. (Unfortunately, many students and parents base the importance of a subject in direct relation to the amount of homework assigned.)

Assignments should include asking the student to listen to practice records if they are available and to speak aloud what he has learned in class. The teacher must be assured first that the student can discriminate between the foreign sounds and produce them accurately; otherwise, unsupervised practice leads only to intensification of errors. The student should also be encouraged to observe himself as he voices the sounds in front of a mirror at home to see that the position and/or movement of pertinent speech organs correspond to the teacher's description and direction.

During this period meaningful homework can be invaluable in helping the student become familiar with the foreign country and its culture. He can read history and geography books and related novels, and can prepare maps and limited research projects dealing with important people and events of the past and present.

The teacher should set homework standards and inform the students that these criteria will be in effect throughout the course.

Emphasis should be placed on content, accuracy, consistency, and completion by assigned date; written work must be neat and legible.

Duration

The length of the prereading period cannot be prescribed in one formula for all teachers and classes. The student in the elementary program may need as much as three years of such instructional activity, and the high school student as little as three weeks. The time limit will vary according to the teacher, the student, the class, the school, and other factors. *The important consideration is to have a prereading period.* The effectiveness of instruction as it is presently conducted is greatly reduced without it.

Several factors which determine the duration of the prereading period are as follows:

- Age of the student
- Complexity of the sound system of the foreign language being studied
- Aptitude and receptivity of the student
- Teacher's ability and resources
- Time needed for the student to gain control of the foreign language sound system before introduction of the written word
- Student's ability to comprehend and use a limited number of basic conversation patterns.

Techniques of Drilling

Since the teacher leads drills in similar fashion to a conductor directing his orchestra, it is necessary for the teacher to use certain signals in guiding these classroom procedures. At the beginning of the course, he should orient his students to the gestures he intends to use and the meaning thereof; for example, one finger raised indicates a single repetition, two fingers a double repetition. This technique results in a ready response by the students and a more efficient use of class time.

In addition, the teacher should give clear and concise directions and should present an accurate and obvious model which is exemplary of what is to be done.

Short meaningful drill examples are more valuable than long ones since they offer students the opportunity to respond often and with more ease. Making frequent small steps of progress leads to active student participation and a vigorous lesson.

In a large class, choral drilling is the only means that insures full-class participation. The teacher must be attentive to the responses of all students to ascertain the quality of performance. This can be accomplished by walking around the room listening to individual responses and by instructing from varying locations.

Individual drilling, also, is important and should supplement choral drilling. It is a means of taking care of individual differences and creating variety within the drilling technique; it often alternates with choral drilling.

For drilling to be effective, the teacher should employ the following techniques:

- Speak at a speed that is consistent with everyday native speech
- Maintain a regular rhythm for repetitions; irregularly spaced time-intervals lead to confusion
- Avoid repeating with students
  The teacher will be unable to hear errors if he himself is speaking
- Correct errors when they occur
  A practiced error is an acquired one
- Avoid boredom and fatigue.

> The amount of unrelieved and unremitting drill in class and laboratory should be considered carefully, since such practice does not automatically result in learning where human factors are involved. Drill and mimicry-memorization to the point of boredom become punishing and distasteful to the student, who will then seek a way of escape from this situation. Such avoidance may be physical, manifested in absence from class or laboratory session, or mental, the student continuing to repeat as demanded, even making mechanical variations of the pattern, but with his thoughts far away from the work in hand. Later, the use of these very phrases may immediately arouse associations of an unpleasant emotional kind, and active use of the foreign language will be inhibited. . . In cases where boredom does not accompany long periods of drill, fatigue may. Such fatigue is emotional rather than physical, but is just as real and painful to the student. It is frequently caused by keeping the student at the same type of task for long periods.[18]

Fatigue may result from extended drilling sessions in either classroom or in the laboratory; few drills can be used successfully for more than ten minutes at a time. The wise teacher will be sensitive to student reaction and will alter the learning activities accordingly.

> Many articles and books on pattern drill use such expressions as the necessity for the 'overlearning' of responses, the continuing of drill to the point of 'automatic response,' and 'saturation practice.' In an actual teaching situation, such expressions must be interpreted with certain reservations if the method is not to be self-defeating. It has been demonstrated that there is a limit to the amount of repetition which

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[18] Rivers, *op. cit.*, p. 150.

> is effective for learning, even with reinforcement . . . it has been . . . demonstrated that too much 'overlearning' results in stereotyped behavior and loss of flexibility, so that, at more advanced stages, the student cannot vary these 'overlearned' responses so as to communicate his 'personal meaning.'[19]

- Produce the foreign sounds correctly and employ patterns for intonation, stress, and rhythm that form the "tune" of the language being taught.
- Accompany speech with bodily gestures and movements pertinent to the foreign language.

Asking Questions

The content of a question and the manner in which it is posed determine, in great measure, the effectiveness of the student's response. Questions should be clearly stated, thought provoking, and adapted to the student's learning and ability. In addition, questions should require a complete answer rather than a minimal response.

The teacher should state the question before the entire class prior to asking an individual student to answer. This secures the attention of all students and gives each one the opportunity to formulate a response.

It is a good practice also to call on students at random and to repeat their replies from time to time. The latter technique enables the teacher to emphasize a particular point and to improve the student's pronunciation.

Homework

Homework should be realistic in nature and in demand on student time. Also, homework should be checked or spot-checked regularly. The student's attention to oral practice can be ascertained by the teacher through a short question and answer period and through observation of progress in the hearing and speaking skills. Written work should be collected and duly noted. It is advantageous to keep representative samples of the student's written work on file until the semester or term has ended. Such a procedure furnishes evidence of student performance and development.

The Spoken Word

Comprehension

From the beginning the student must realize that his success in learning the foreign language is in direct proportion to the effort he exerts. Total concentration is the first order of business. Ear training is the business itself. Ear training involves practice in listening to and recognizing (1) the differences between the phonemes[20] of the foreign language and (2) the differences between the foreign language phonemes and those of the native language.[21]

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[19] *Ibid.*, p. 151.

[20] Suggested reading: Brooks, *op. cit.*, pp. 275-277; Politzer, *op. cit.*, chapter 11; Gleason, *op. cit.*, chapter 16.

Listening, the first phase of language learning, must be accorded special attention in order that the pupil may automatically "distinguish sounds, words, and structures; associate meanings with the sounds; [and] infer meanings of words from the context." [22]

It is readily apparent that listening and comprehension are "skill-mates." Only when students are given short pronunciation drills for purposes of recognizing phonemic differences is it possible to disassociate meaning from sound. "Sound and meaning and meaning and sound must be identified so frequently that recognition becomes automatic." [23]

Obviously, the student will develop neither sound nor pattern discrimination if he is not exposed to a constant stream of foreign language utterances. The teacher, therefore, from the beginning, must include listening comprehension as a regular feature of the daily lesson. This will involve using the foreign language for greetings, usual classroom expressions, and instruction as well as for the basic content of the lessons.

Since the teacher's voice serves principally as the model, he must speak clearly and at a moderate pace that remains consistent with native speech. He should accompany his speech with dramatization, which enables the pupil to make direct association between the sounds he hears and the actions he observes.

Although the teacher's pronunciation may be excellent, the students should frequently listen to native speakers via taped materials, phonograph records, and radio broadcasts.

> In this way the pupil will hear the foreign language at normal speed in authentic life situations, through the voices of young and old, male and female, accomplished actor and ordinary citizen. This will overcome one of the greatest weaknesses of foreign language instruction in the past, where the pupil heard only the voice of one teacher and was never prepared for contact with natives in life situations.[24]

For illustrative purposes, Huebener gives the following steps to be taken in an auditory-comprehension lesson:[25]

1. *Motivation.* An effort is made to arouse the pupil's interest in the topic or presentation.
2. *Introduction.* The situation or content is briefly described.
3. *Anticipation of difficulties.* If there are any new words or structures, these will be singled out and made clear.

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[21] Politzer, *op. cit.*, p. 89.

[22] Huebener, *op. cit.*, p. 28.

[23] *Ibid.*, p. 30.

[24] *Ibid.*, p. 31.

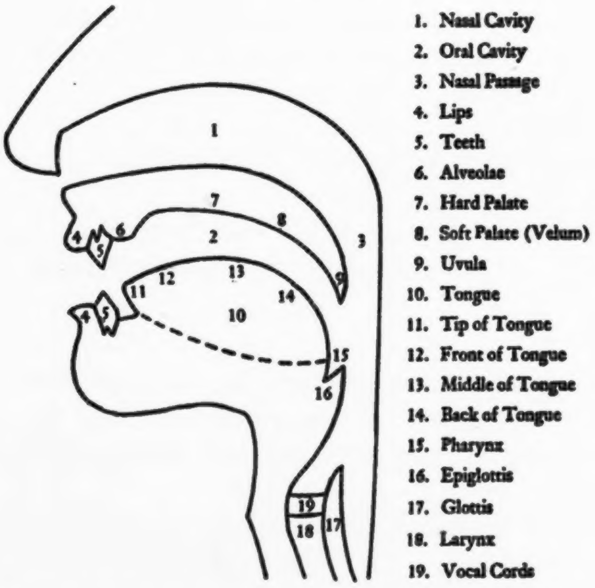
[25] *Ibid.*, pp. 37-38.

4. *First listening.* The record or tape is played.
5. *Check on difficulties.* Some words and structures may still be incomprehensible to a few students. These are taken up at this point and clarified.
6. *Second listening.* Again the tape is played without interruption.
7. *Questions.* Significant expressions, key words and phrases, and structures to be learned are used in questions.
8. *Third listening.*
9. *Questions.* The teacher asks original, informal questions to test the comprehension of the pupils and to elicit reactions and appreciation of the content.

Pronunciation

While some foreign language speech sounds are similar to those of English, many are quite different. In any event, the language student needs to understand speech production in order to make modifications of his native language sounds and to learn how to produce new sounds.

The following chart[26] shows organs used in production of speech sounds:


1
7
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5
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18
17
1. Nasal Cavity
2. Oral Cavity
3. Nasal Passage
4. Lips
5. Teeth
6. Alveolae
7. Hard Palate
8. Soft Palate (Velum)
9. Uvula
10. Tongue
11. Tip of Tongue
12. Front of Tongue
13. Middle of Tongue
14. Back of Tongue
15. Pharynx
16. Epiglottis
17. Glottis
18. Larynx
19. Vocal Cords

Although the student may be able to hear the difference between the various foreign language phonemes and between the foreign language sounds and those of his native tongue, he still may not be able to imitate the sounds accurately. An "articulatory recipe," a description of *how* to produce the foreign language sound, is valuable in this situation.

Here the pupil and teacher must both keep in mind that

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[26] Politzer, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

> advice on how to say a particular sound should be short, clear, precise, and unambiguous. Unless the articulatory description tells you exactly what to do with your speech organs, it is probably of very little value. The best advice is usually that which tells you to start with a familiar sound of your own language, and then specifies in precise terms how to introduce a modification that will lead to the foreign sound. Thus a Frenchman or a Spaniard normally says his /t/ sound with the tip of the tongue against the teeth. In telling him how to produce the English /t/ sound, you would have to point out that he should put the tip of his tongue farther back in the mouth against the alveolar ridge. . . . on the other hand, advice such as 'say the sound more softly,' 'make a sort of hushing noise,' or 'produce the sound very distinctly,' usually means only that the teacher or the textbook was not too sure of what to say.[27]

Additional techniques for teaching pronunciation are as follows:[28]

- Start early on pronunciation problems. If a student has once been allowed to transfer his native sounds and rhythms into the foreign language, it will be difficult for him to change.
- Restrict the student to a limited number of expressions until his pronunciation nears perfection.
- Correct one set of errors at a time. In the learning of intonation languages, the first set of errors to be corrected should involve the use of pitch, stress, and rhythm.
- Keep drill periods short.
- Introduce drills whenever pronunciation weaknesses appear.
- Teach in terms of contrasts.
- Do the majority of drills with words or short expressions. Practice on isolated sounds is of limited value.

Communication

"Speaking, without communicating, is a tale told by an idiot." [29] This statement describes succinctly the case for effective interchange of thoughts and exchange of information via the spoken word.

The goal of true communication is achieved by progressing through several stages. The first stage which comprises purposeful listening and comprehension is followed almost immediately by the second stage which entails repeated imitation and recall, again with comprehension. There must be much memorization of model sentences presented through dialogues and much opportunity for drill and practice of the sounds and structural patterns of the foreign language.[30]

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[27] *Ibid.*, p. 91.

[28] Earl W. Stevick, *Helping People Learn English: A Manual for Teachers of English as a Second Language* (New York: Abingdon Press, 1957), p. 43.

[29] Earl W. Stevick, "The Modular Mousetrap," *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. I, No. 3 (September, 1967), p. 3.

The patterns should be selected and drilled on the basis of frequency of use. In addition, for motivational purposes, the vocabulary should be of immediate interest to the student. This will often call for adaptation and expansion of materials by the teacher.

Following the activities of *recognition*, *imitation*, and *repetition*, the learner proceeds to *variation* wherein he produces under the close guidance of the teacher, a phrase or sentence which differs only minimally from what he has done previously. He then moves on to the last activity, *selection*, in which there is very little control by the teacher and in which the student chooses a particular phrase or sentence that is meaningfully appropriate to the situation.

If the student is to "select" successfully, however, he must be aware of the "meanings" that words have for the native speaker of the foreign language. The understanding of a poem, for instance, involves "not merely an understanding of the single words in their average significance, but a full comprehension of the whole life of the community as it is mirrored in the words, or as it is suggested by their overtones." [31]

Since the context of a language is its culture, no two languages can be said to represent exactly the same social reality; therefore,

> If our students are to be able to use the foreign language to express their personal meaning in a way which will be comprehensible to a native speaker, they must move beyond linguistic or distributional meaning into this area of social convention in use of words, tone of voice, and intonation.[32]

In this way, actual communication can be established and false impressions, misunderstandings, and misinterpretations will be avoided.

Dialogue

The dialogue, which is an effective learning device when it is properly structured and used, has two aspects: content and form.

Content, the conversational exchanges comprising the body of the dialogue, should incorporate items which are most useful to the student in the way of structure, vocabulary, and culture.

The form of the beginning dialogues should be restricted to two or three speakers and limited to five or six exchanges. The utterances, at first, should be kept short yet natural. As the pupils advance, the utterances should allow two or three intonational patterns per speaker but probably not more than three.

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[30] Huebener, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

[31] David G. Mandelbaum, editor, *Selected Writings of Edward Sapir in Language, Culture and Personality* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1958), p. 162.

[32] Rivers, *op. cit.*, p. 133.

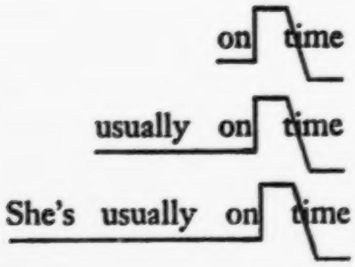
Of paramount importance is the establishment of meaning. It must be immediate and constant. It is important also that the student memorize the foreign language patterns in order to develop automatic habits of response. His replies, however, will be inadequate and completely meaningless to himself and to his communicants if he does not possess full comprehension of what he is hearing and speaking.

The teacher can use dialogue more effectively if he maintains a relaxed yet disciplined atmosphere. The students must feel at ease but at the same time be guided by orderly processes.

Individual expression and active participation are encouraged by relating the content of the dialogue to the interests of the student. Obviously, a sixteen-year-old boy is going to be bored by a discussion of teeter-tottering at recess or, likewise, by a philosophical discourse on Schopenhauer. Talking about a sailing trip to Bermuda or a helicopter flight over Richmond is more to his liking.

Additional suggestions for the teaching and learning of dialogues are as follows:

- Coordinate dialogue materials with pattern drills, reading selections, and question and answer exercises. This coordination provides for expansion and reinforcement of patterns.
- Conduct backward build-ups when students encounter difficulty with patterns, always retaining proper intonational patterns. For example, assuming that the original utterance is *She's usually on time*, the backward build-up drill would continue in the following manner with the teacher first uttering each segment and the student repeating:



- Involve *all* the students at one time or another. By-passing the slow student can be as much a cause of resentment as constant attention to and exhaltation of the good student.
- Provide teacher and student exchange as well as student and student exchange.
- Insist that students accompany their speech with the same gestures used by native speakers.
- Give each student frequent opportunities for success.
- Review constantly. Each new lesson should contain material

from previous lessons along with the introduction of new items.

Students should converse and not read dialogues from papers or texts. Later, when the skill of reading is taught, such reading is not only permissible but is considered a good practice.

Grammar

Grammar is taught best through pattern drills (based on structures introduced in dialogues) and analogy, and not through long statements centered on discussion of "meanings" and "logic" and garnished with interesting but irrelevant speculation.

Grammar-teaching, simply stated, is concerned with "what goes with what (and when and in what order)." [33] To avoid confusing grammar explanations, the teacher should:

- Point out critical features of the pattern in question
- Give descriptive, not prescriptive statements about the grammar The teacher needs to point out to the students *what* they are doing; otherwise, they will manipulate drills and make up their own explanations which may be right or wrong
- Keep explanations short and clear
- Identify rather than define
- Base explanations on forms and arrangements of forms
- Establish patterns with examples
- Summarize patterns after they have been practiced
- Contrast one pattern with another.

The Written Word

> The skills of reading and writing are physiologically and psychologically very different from those of hearing and speaking. Just as the ear is the dominant organ throughout in both listening and speaking, the eye is dominant in both reading and writing. Sensitivity to sound now gives way to sensitivity to light. This distinction is important from the point of view not only of the matter and manner of the new learning but also of the special capacities and limitations which the learner brings to the process. We need to make sure that his sight is normal as he learns to read, as well as to make sure that his hearing is normal as he learns to listen and speak. The factor of inertia must also be taken into account. Just as one can learn to understand without learning to speak, so one can learn to read without learning to write. The extent to which one will speak and write in the new language will be vastly less than the extent to which he will listen and read, yet this makes it all the more necessary to take the learner through the steps required to put him in control of all four language skills.[34]

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[33] Stevick (1957), p. 49.

[34] Brooks, *op. cit.*, pp. 166-167.

Reading

Reading, a complex process which encompasses many facets, is difficult to define and equally difficult to teach. The foreign language teacher would be well-advised to become acquainted in depth with what the reading specialists say concerning this discipline. As an example, the following information compiled from research in the field of the psychology of reading relates to foreign-language teaching as well as to native-language teaching:

- Ability in auditory and visual discrimination are necessary for reading progress but do not alone guarantee reading success . . . we must search for other factors or combinations of factors that influence reading readiness and achievement.[35]
- Perhaps the most important characteristic of reading is that it is a *perception* of graphic symbols. . . . Words suggest rather than transmit meaning. The written symbol is a visible sign which represents something. Just what it will represent depends on the interpretation given to it by the observers . . . . Communication always is imperfect. Its degree of perfection is dependent on the similarity of meanings that the reader and the writer (or the listener and the speaker) attach to the symbols used.[36]
- When we focus upon reading as a response, we recognize that reading performance is closely related to motivation, physical well-being, fatigue, and habit . . . . Teacher-pupil rapport, general emotional climate of the classroom, the child's degree of self-confidence and his aspirational levels may be important factors.[37]
- Learning to read requires more than the ability to make sensory responses. It involves the learned association of the spoken with the written word . . . . Learning to read includes even more than the ability to respond and to associate. It involves interpretation and at the higher levels it calls for some degree of organization, cognition, reasoning—in fact the elements we consider as necessary to thinking. . . . We say that a child has learned to read when he can make the same physical, emotional, and mental responses to the written word that he previously made to the spoken word . . . . We find that with repeated and motivated association, meaning becomes attached to the written word.[38]
- Interest is a selective force; it directs attention to specific ele-

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[35] Henry P. Smith and Emerald V. Dechant, *Psychology in Teaching of Reading* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961), p. 438.

[36] *Ibid.*, pp. 438-439.

[37] *Ibid.*, pp. 441, 442.

[38] *Ibid.*, pp. 443, 444.

ments in the environment. And it directs the choice of reading materials.[39]

The extent of discussions on the teaching of reading (and writing) a foreign language is so great that it is impossible to consider all of the various methods which have been proposed. Some of the procedures, which experts in the field of language teaching feel have worked most successfully are as follows:

In helping students make the transition from sound to symbol,

- Select a phoneme from a sentence and write a one-syllable word on the blackboard that contains the phoneme. For example, write *bon* on the board and pronounce it at the same time. List other words which contain the sound and symbol, as *ton* and *mon*. Pronounce the words and have students repeat. Ask students to suggest other words which might fit into this category and list these also. Continue pronunciation practice.[40]
- Select another phoneme from the same sentence and teach it in the same way. This time, however, it is possible to select a word which contains the phoneme already learned plus a new one. Continue in this way until the sentence has been exhausted of the phonemes that need attention.[41]
- Write the complete sentence on the board. Read it and have it read aloud. Write other familiar sentences containing the same phonemes. Read them and have them read aloud.
- Call the students' attention to diacritical marks, silent letters, unusual letter combinations, incidents of linking and elision, and other items of importance.

The above procedure can be used to teach all of the letters of the foreign language. Following the initial transition from sound to symbol, there are several subsequent steps to take:

- Distribute a printed version of what the students have studied orally. Read the selection aloud several times while the students keep their texts closed and listen carefully. Read aloud again, this time with students silently looking at the script. Next, read aloud and have students repeat reading aloud in full chorus, then in half chorus. Finally, ask individual students to read aloud parts or all of the passage. If students have memorized the material or have learned it thoroughly, they will have to be reminded, perhaps, to keep their eyes on the text.
- "Prepare sentences that are composed of known words put together in a new way. (For example, the student knows:

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[39] *Ibid.*, p. 446.

[40] Cornfield, *op. cit.*, p. 100.

[41] *Loc. cit.*

> 'My father has a new car.' 'He bought it yesterday.' He now reads: 'Yesterday my father bought a new car.')"[42]

The student must always understand what he is reading. The teacher can quickly and efficiently realize the extent of the student's comprehension through simple questions and answers, true-false and multiple choice sentences.

Additional suggested procedures are as follows:

- Tell the students not to write the English equivalents above the foreign language words; otherwise, their eyes will jump to what is familiar and, as a consequence, the foreign language word will remain unlearned.
- Familiarize the class with a new reading selection before assignment of such as homework. Present a brief synopsis of the selection in the foreign language, give advance help with any difficult structures, and indicate the new vocabulary and idioms and the meaning related thereto. For the synopsis, use only vocabulary and structures with which the students are acquainted.
- "Make clear to [the] students whether their preparation is to be 'intensive' or 'extensive.' In intensive reading, the student is expected to know the meaning of every word and phrase; in extensive reading, he strives for the meaning of the passage as a whole and guesses at the meanings of unfamiliar words unless they prove indispensable to the meaning of the passage."[43]
- Avoid calling on individual students to read aloud a sentence at a time and then to translate.

After "bridging the gap" between sound and symbol, the learner is ready to advance to ". . . reading between and beyond the lines. This involves reflecting on what the author has said and reacting to it, and is more difficult than merely perceiving phrases or sentences."[44] It is important for the student to gain interpretation, and not just literal comprehension, of the "textual content"; otherwise, he remains a "slave to recitation."

When the teacher is satisfied that the student understands the literal meaning of the reading selection, then he should initiate techniques which will cause the student to search for the author's "meaning" and ideas. It is best to start with teaching devices that are simple and then progress to those which are more difficult and call for more practice.[45]

> "The following are some of the techniques a teacher can use to stimulate the student to think about what he is reading:

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[42] Brooks, *op. cit.*, p. 170.
[43] Stevick (1957), *op. cit.*, p. 67.
[44] Cornfield, *op. cit.*, p. 102.
[45] *Ibid.*, p. 105.

- Select the cue words to phrases in the paragraph (or on the page) upon which the meaning of the selection depends.
- Join the cue words or phrases together in such a way that a summary results. (The teacher will have to teach such summarizing expressions as: as a result of, for these reasons, in conclusion, because of, in order that, however, in spite of, thas is to say, etc.)
- Make an outline showing main ideas and contributing ones.
- Find the items in the selection with which you agree.
- Find the items in the selection with which you disagree. Can you give reasons?
- Could you give the selection another title? What would you choose and why?
- Can you give this story a different ending?
- What generalizations can you make after reading the selection?
- If you were turning this story into a play, what would you need on the stage? Find the items in the story.
- Retell the story in your own words." [46]

The last technique is especially valuable since it coordinates speaking activities with those of reading. One of the greatest dangers in teaching reading is the tendency for teacher and students to revert to the mother tongue when attempting explanations and expressions of ideas. The teacher must not teach beyond the understanding and capabilities of the students and must not forget the need for daily audio-lingual activities.

Vocabulary Learning

As soon as the student has a firm grasp of structural patterns, he should begin to expand his vocabulary and move beyond mere manipulation and recitation to active participation in all language skills.

The teacher can aid the student in the mastery and acquisition of vocabulary through the following means:

- Insisting on the student's learning vocabulary in context.
- Omitting required memorization of word lists.
- Grouping words together that are frequently used together: The *waves* from the *ocean* washed the *shells ashore* at high *tide*.
- Explaining word derivation and the use of antonyms, synonyms, and cognates. Caution must be exercised in the last two categories: two words which are apparently similar in meaning often carry different meanings.

Only advanced students should use the dictionary. Even then they must remember that the dictionary "meaning" may be quite different from the contextual "meaning." Dictionaries should usually be monolingual rather than bilingual.

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[46] *Loc. cit.*, pp. 105-106.

Reading Materials

After the student has acquired facility in reading, his motivation to pursue independent reading for personal pleasure will be heightened if supplementary materials which interest him are available.

If possible these materials should be kept in the classroom. They should be diversified in content and graded to fit the slow or fast reader. Beginning materials could be recipes, magazine advertisements, newspaper announcements, and comics. More difficult reading could be found in short stories, novelettes, and magazine articles. Generally, drama and poetry should be reserved for the most advanced student.

Translation

Contrary to accepted thought and practice, it is not necessary to translate passages in order to acquire meaning. Translation, which is a skill within itself, actually distorts the true sense of a selection when placed in the hands of the inexperienced.

The following example in Latin and the accompanying correlated exercises[47] illustrate how it is possible to arrive at an understanding of written material without resorting to a word-by-word translation:

LATIN II[48]

> Gallia est omnis dīvīsa in partēs trēs, quārum ūnam incolunt Belgae, aliam Aquītānī, tertiam eī quī ipsōrum linguā Celtae, nostrā Gallī appellantur. Hī omnēs linguā, īnstitūtīs, lēgibus inter sē differunt. Gallōs ab Aquītānīs Garunna flūmen, ā Belgīs Matrona et Sēquana dīvidit.
>
> Hōrum omnium fortissimī sunt Belgae, propterea quod ā cultū atque hūmānitāte Prōvinciae longissimē absunt, minimēque saepe mercātōrēs ad eōs veniunt atque ea quae ad effēminandōs animōs pertinent important. Proximī sunt Germānis quī trāns Rhēnum incolunt, quibuscum semper bellum gerunt. Quā dē causā Helvētiī quoque reliquōs Gallōs virtūte superant, quod ferē cotīdiānīs proeliīs cum Germānīs contendunt, cum aut suīs fīnibus eōs prohibent aut ipsī in eōrum fīnibus bellum gerunt.
>
> Eōrum ūna pars, quam Gallī obtinent, initium capit ā flūmine Rhodanō; continētur Garunnā flūmine, Ōceanō, fīnibus Belgārum; attingit etiam ab Sēquanīs et Helvētiīs flūmen Rhēnum; vergit ad septentriōnēs. Belgae ab extrēmīs Galliae fīnibus oriuntur, pertinent ad īnferiōrem partem flūminis

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[47] Material of Dr. Carolyn E. Bock, Montclair State College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey.

[48] B. L. Ullman, Charles Henderson. Jr., and Norman E. Henry, *Latin for Americans: Second Book* (The Macmillan Company, 1962), pp. 192-193.

Rhēnī, spectant in septentriōnēs et orientem sōlem. Aquītānia ā Garunnā flūmine ad Pyrēnaeōs montēs et eam partem Ōceanī quae est ad Hispāniam pertinet; spectat inter occāsum sōlis et septentriōnēs.

I. Read aloud with attention to phrasing.

II. Listen to the questions in Latin, answer in English, read the Latin which is the basis for your answer:

1. In quantās partēs est dīvīsa Gallia?
2. Quī ūnam partem incolunt?
3. Quī secundam partem incolunt?
4. Quī partem tertiam incolunt?
5. Quō aliō nōmine Celtae appellantur?
6. Quō modō partēs differunt?
7. Quid Aquītānōs ā Gallīs separat?
8. Quid Belgās ā Gallīs dividit?
9. Quī sunt fortissimī?
10. Quā dē causā? a)
    b)
    c)
11. Quae pars est fīnitima Germānīs?
12. Quid Belgās ā Germānīs separat?
13. Omnium Gallōrum quī sunt fortissimī?
14. Quī Gallōs virtūte superant?
15. Quam ob rem?
16. Quam saepe pugnant?

III. Reference: Replace suīs, eōs, ipsī, eōrum with noun naming person or persons.

IV. 1. Map work: In chartā monstrā:

a) trēs partēs Galliae
b) Germānōs
c) Helvētiōs
d) Matronam
e) Sēquanam
f) Garunnam
g) Prōvinciam
h) Rhodanum
i) Rhēnum
j) Ōceānum
k) Pyrēnaeōs
l) Hispāniam
m) Omnem Galliam
n) Belgās
o) Celtās
p) Aquītaniam

2. Quibus fīnibus quisque continētur? Mē legente, monstrā in chartā.
3. Give the English name of each; give the modern name wherever possible.

V. Vocabulary

1. Give the best meaning of each in this context: a) īnstitūtīs, b) ā cultū atque humānitāte, c) mercātōrēs, d) initium capit, e) vergit, f) ab extrēmīs fīnibus, g) spectant
2. How are the directions north, east, south, and west expressed by Caesar?

3. Dīc aliud verbum quod idem ferē significat.
    - a) omnēs
    - b) incolunt
    - c) īnstitūtīs
    - d) propterea quod
    - e) minimē
    - f) effeminandōs
    - g) praecēdunt
    - h) ferē
    - i) contendunt
    - j) prohibent
    - k) fīnibus
4. Word families: Origō; alia verba
    - a) incolunt
    - b) dīvīsa
    - c) differunt
    - d) flūmen
    - e) humānitāte
    - f) mercātōrēs
    - g) cotīdiānīs
    - h) prohibent
    - i) obtinent
    - j) initium
    - k) attingit
    - l) occāsum
5. Derivatives: Invenī Latīnum verbum ex quō quisque nascitur
    - a) reliquary
    - b) flume
    - c) occidental
    - d) attack
    - e) mercantile

VI. Grammar: Expone constrūctiōnēs

1. a) lēgibus, īnstitūtīs, linguā
    - b) ab Aquitanīs
    - c) ā cultū
    - d) ad effeminandōs animōs
    - e) Germānīs
    - f) virtūte
    - g) suīs fīnibus
    - h) in fīnibus
    - i) Garunnā flūmine
2. What tense is used predominantly? Why?
3. What case figures importantly?

VII. Relevance

1. Does the map which we have just examined predict difficulties about which we can expect to read?
2. Have these same stresses been experienced throughout history in these areas?
3. What role does geography play in the Middle, Near East crisis today?

VIII. Translation (if necessary or desirable)

Literature

What is literature? What place should it occupy in the foreign language curriculum? When and how should it be taught? What criteria should be followed in selecting literary works for student use?

Answers to these questions are offered in a comprehensive report, entitled *The Times and Places for Literature.*[49] Since the assistance that this report gives to teachers is invaluable and, in some cases, indispensable, each teacher should resolve to read it and consider carefully its recommendations.

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[49] Thomas E. Bird, editor, *Foreign Language: Reading, Literature, and Requirements,* Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1967, Reports of the Working Committees (Menasha, Wisconsin: George Banta Company, Inc.), pp. 51-102.

The report, in listing "Factors Limiting the Times and Places for Literature," comments as follows:[50]

> We have indicated explicitly that general confusion about the objectives of language instruction and the study of literature and inconsistencies in defining the nature and function of literature have led to poor instruction in both areas. We believe that past confusion has led to lack of interest in and distaste for foreign literatures among many students for the following specific reasons:
>
> (a) Failure to provide students with a wide range of choice in their reading before and after they have achieved liberated reading.
> (b) Failure to use media other than the printed text in presenting literature; for example, films, staged plays, recitations, readings by authors.
> (c) Denying students a personal confrontation with literary works through analogy with their own experience by imposing on them our own view of how they should respond to the works.
> (d) Failure to recognize that a literary work is capable of many levels of treatment from acquaintance through assimilation.
> (e) Presenting literature, prior to specialization through analyses that are more appropriate at advanced undergraduate and graduate levels.
> (f) Failure to provide a context within which either acquaintance or assimilation may effectively take place.
> (g) Failure to require of students functional control of the language before they enter literature courses.

Another source to which the teacher can refer for valuable information concerning the teaching of reading is the report "Reading for Meaning."[51]

Literature is not only written but oral and, as such, can be introduced to the pupil in the elementary grades, provided the teacher has had appropriate training. This limited experience must give pleasure as must any study of literature at any age.

The teacher should always keep in mind the linguistic and cultural objectives and not sacrifice these in his eagerness to teach "for literary understanding and appreciation."

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[50] *Ibid.*, pp. 73-74.

[51] William F. Bottiglia, editor, *Language Learning: The Intermediate Phase*, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1963, Reports of the Working Committees (Manchester, New Hampshire: Lew A. Cummings Company, Inc.), pp. 22-60.

A literary work should be selected in accord with the students' maturity, interests, and linguistic ability. It should not be chosen only on the basis of the teacher's enthusiasm for or familiarity with it. Too often a teacher will insist on using a literary masterpiece he has recently studied in a college course; this is a grave mistake.

> From the point of view of learning psychology, a literary masterpiece is probably the worst place to begin an attempt at developing an appreciation of literature in any language—the student may be so overwhelmed by the linguistic difficulty, the complexity and richness, that he simply gives up. Insight into Molière's comic and satiric genius has to begin at a much lower and simpler point, in some seemingly banal anecdote or in the caption of a cartoon by Sempé.[52]

Foreign language instructors in Virginia colleges are justifiably critical of high school teachers who are guilty of this wrong deed. The result for many students who do survive the resulting boredom and frustration and persist in foreign language study at the college level is an attitude of superiority towards their fellow classmates who have not had similar work. Furthermore, it becomes very difficult for their college instructors to convince them of the need for repeating such study in order to delve below the surface of the plot to seek appreciation of the style, thought, and literary worth of the material.

In all major areas of study, it should be the goal of the teacher to guide students to think for themselves, but ". . . we cannot rest satisfied with anything less than active thought . . . any mental activity that moves to justified conclusions new to the thinker."[53] The study of literature in a foreign language can contribute to the achievement of this goal "only if it occurs at the proper times and places and only if it is based on an approach which can lead to thought in our students which is at once flexible and humanistic."[54]

Writing

Writing reinforces aural and reading comprehension and even strengthens the skill in speaking. The latter holds true particularly for the visually minded learner.

Accuracy in writing is highly important; therefore, the student must exert every effort to write correctly the words and foreign language patterns.

Spelling, which is a major factor in writing, is often dealt with separately. The problems will not be as numerous in those languages that display a high consistency between sound and the representative grapheme as in those where many inconsistencies exist. "One way of keeping spelling problems at a minimum at the beginning is to concentrate on words in which the fit of sound to symbol is fully satisfactory and consistent."[55]

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[52] 1967 Northeast Conference, *op. cit.*, p. 77.

[53] *Ibid.*, p. 64.

[54] *Ibid.*, p. 65.

COPYING

The first step the student should take in learning how to write is to copy material that he has already mastered through hearing, speaking, and reading. Sentences and phrases rather than single words should be written. The material should be copied several times and then checked by the teacher. Amazingly, many errors are made in imitative writing. Copying is not meaningless busy work but is a necessary procedure in learning how to write.

DICTATION

Dictation affords an easy transition from the spoken to the written word and reinforces the imitative writing exercise.

The first material used for dictation should be completely familiar to the students; preferably, it should consist of sentences taken from the passages the students have just copied.

The teacher should never dictate word by word but rather sentence by sentence or phrase by phrase, always maintaining a natural rhythm, intonation, and speed, and always speaking in a clear and expressive voice.

The teacher should select a certain set of procedures which he presents to the students and uses consistently. In addition, the students must understand that during dictation the teacher will not deviate from his procedures to repeat the dictation beyond the allowable number of times, to answer questions, or to interrupt or accept interruptions for any other purpose.

A suggested procedure for dictation is as follows:

- First reading: pupils listen as teacher reads entire selection.
- Second reading: pupils write as teacher dictates phrase by phrase or sentence by sentence.
- Third reading: pupils listen and make corrections wherever they believe necessary as teacher again reads through entire selection.
- Teacher writes dictation on board or distributes papers containing dictation, and students correct own papers.
- Students take papers home, rewrite correctly, and study carefully.
- Teacher gives same dictation the following day. There should be few or no errors.

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[55] Brooks, *op. cit.*, p. 168.

"Spot" dictation has proved very successful in the initial stages of teaching writing. In this procedure the student is handed a sheet of paper on which a sentence is printed with one or two words missing. The student listens to the teacher read the sentence and fills in the blank spaces. The exercise can continue with more and more words being deleted until finally the student is writing the sentence without hearing it read. Later, he will be able to write entire paragraphs prepared in this manner.

SENTENCE WRITING

Several methods are suggested for teaching sentence writing.

- Teacher selects a sentence from known material along with a list of words which can be used to replace nouns or verbs, adjectives or adverbs in the sentence. He then tells the students to write new sentences following the structure of the model that has been given and using the words that have been supplied.[56] For example:

  These teachers have completed their work.
  student/pass/test

- Teacher selects suitable sentence and "dehydrates" it,

  > . . . deleting articles, prepositions, and other noncontent words and putting verbs, nouns, and adjectives in their lexical form if they have been inflected; omit as many words as can be left out without making the meaning unclear. Write the remaining words across the page, without punctuation, and separate them by diagonal lines. Instruct the student to rewrite the group of words as a complete sentence, using each word in the order given, changing form when necessary and adding whatever words are required for completion.[57]

  Example:

  bird/hand/worth/two/bush

PARAGRAPH WRITING

The teacher chooses a subject about which students have recently read. He writes a paragraph about it which contains 7 to 10 sentences using only structures and vocabulary that the students know. Each is asked to have a blank sheet of paper on his desk. The teacher then reads aloud the first sentence of his paragraph and asks that the students repeat it aloud. If the sentence is too long, it may be necessary to divide it into parts. Following the repetition the teacher has the students write the sentence on their papers; he, in turn, writes the sentence on the board and asks the students to correct their papers. When the entire paragraph has been given in this manner, the teacher erases the sentence on the board and asks the students to turn their papers over to the blank side. The teacher again writes on the board, but this time he puts down only a two- or three-word nucleus from each sentence. The students are then asked to write the entire paragraph on their papers. The words on the board will refresh their memory. When the students have completed the writing, they can look on the other side of their papers and quickly check for any errors.[58]

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[56] *Ibid.*, p. 170.
[57] *Ibid.*, pp. 175-176.

There are many other methods for teaching paragraph writing but, again, space does not permit mentioning all of them. One that has produced results and should be noted is as follows:

> The teacher composes a paragraph and then writes down a series of questions in logical order. The answer to each one forms a sentence of the paragraph. The students are given the questions and are instructed to answer each one in the order presented. The last step is to tell the students to ". . . arrange his sequence of answers as a complete paragraph." [59]

Teachers often ask what the difference is between guided and controlled writing. Guided writing is that technique in which "the short written responses of the pupils are guided by the teacher." [60] For example:[61]

- The teacher reads a passage twice and makes incomplete statements based on the material read. The pupils complete the statements.
- The teacher reads a passage twice and asks questions based on the selection. The students write down the answers. The teacher then rereads the passage and questions in order that students may check their errors.
- Students complete pattern drill.

Controlled writing and guided writing contain some of the same phases. In controlled writing, however, there is an expansion of the student's skills which he has acquired through transformation and substitution drills.[62] Activities involve rewriting a "narrative passage into a dialogue or vice versa . . . [and more difficult] rewriting a narrative or dialogue in the form of a letter." [63]

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[58] *Ibid.*, pp. 176-177.
[59] *Ibid.*, p. 178.
[60] Huebener, *op. cit.*, p. 78.
[61] *Loc. cit.*
[62] *Ibid.*, p. 79.
[63] *Loc. cit.*

To assist students with composition work, several teaching devices are suggested:

- Present to the students a list of words, phrases, or idioms that outline a specific theme and direct them to proceed as follows: Write a composition describing your date last night. Use as a guide the following expressions in the order given: to answer the doorbell, to introduce your friend to your family, to tell your parents goodbye, to see a movie, to go to a restaurant, to have a snack, to arrive home on time.
- Ask the class to write a composition based on a prepared model. Guide them by offering a topic sentence for each paragraph, or by presenting them with headings which include key words and expressions.
- Give detailed directions concerning the form and content of the composition. Example: "Write a letter to your friend Susan telling her about your recent visit to the State of Virginia. You stayed with your aunt. She lives in Alexandria. You went sight-seeing. Mention some of the places you saw. Describe your trip home."

Wherever possible, a definite limit should be set on the length of the composition. ". . . a knowledge of the length of the statement to be made has much to do with the treatment of ideas and with the language and style that are employed."[64]

In addition, the student should always have an awareness of the person or persons to whom his writing is to be addressed since this consciousness is an element of prime importance in successful writing.

Students can achieve competence in writing in the foreign language provided that the teacher controls, guides, and directs their learning activities wisely. Too much too soon is an invitation to failure.

Levels of Style in Language Usage

Departure from the appropriate style level of language usage may cause severe censure if the user happens to be a native instead of a foreigner. A community sometimes overlooks the errors of strangers but seldom tolerates mistakes committed by its own members. Also, the degree of tolerance to inappropriate language usage varies from country to country and from group to group within a country.

If students are to become sensitive to the nuances and intricacies of language usage, thereby developing a more effective tool for communication, they should be acquainted with all levels of style. These are often placed in five classifications although the titles of the classifications may vary.

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[64] Brooks, *op. cit.*, p. 178.

- Artistic

  This level is most usually written. Beauty of form and preciseness of style, as in poetry, are the main characteristics. The non-native's acquaintance with this level will probably be through reading.
- Formal

  This level, characterized by expressions which are considered carefully for their appropriateness and grammatical acceptability, is used frequently by the average educated person. Written examples include formal essays, written comprehensive examinations, and certain types of literary works: oral examples are speeches and lectures.
- Colloquial

  This term, which designates a functional variety of language, refers to the level that is used mainly in conversation. Educated people use it for business-type relationships and for everyday contacts with associates and acquaintances. Written examples are certain letters, some newspaper journalism and realistic literature. The current approaches to language teaching stress this level of usage.
- Informal

  Language utterances on this level are used with members of the family and intimate friends and are interlaced with cant, slang, and jargon. Usage is predominantly oral; however, examples of writing appear in very informal letters and notes and in certain literatures. The language learner is seldom at home on this level.
- Substandard

  Usage at this level consists almost entirely of the speech of the average uneducated person. There is much grammatical freedom and relaxation of controls. This level is not appropriate for foreign language programs.

Problems of proper usage should be evaluated carefully by the teacher. He should ascertain which forms of communication are highly standardized, which style level is of benefit to the students, and which usage aids efficiency of communication.

Recommended teaching procedures include the following:

- Guide students to proper usage through exercises and drills that are contrasting in nature. For example: beginning exercises could include simple greetings and short conversational exchanges between student and student and student and teacher. Differences in usage should be noted and reinforcement provided through pattern drills.

- Make extensive use of tapes which emphasize contrasting styles.
- Stress the importance of correct usage of the written word. The style employed in writing to a friend, for example, is entirely different from that used in addressing a prospective employer.
- Gradually introduce students to the different levels of style.
- Reserve the study of stylistics for advanced classes.

Culture

Culture is doing and saying, repeatedly, the customary thing in the customary way at the customary time. In short, culture is the total patterned behavior of a given community.

Since language and culture are implicitly intertwined, the degree of communication with foreign nationals is in direct proportion to the comprehension of their culture. Ready understanding of the latter, however, is difficult to achieve without the native speaker's knowledge of his own cultural patterns. Such patterns, though, take place below the threshold of awareness and are fully revealed only when they are contrasted and compared with those of other cultures.

The efficiency of contrastive analysis in regard to the learning of a foreign language itself has previously been noted; however, there is another application of it which must be made if the student is to receive a comprehensive program.

> Of equal importance is an introduction to the nonverbal language which exists in every country of the world and among the various groups within each country. Most Americans . . . are not conscious of the elaborate patterning of behavior which prescribes our handling of time, our spatial relationships, our attitudes toward work, play and learning. In addition to what we say with our verbal language we are constantly communicating our real feelings in our silent language—the language of behavior. Sometimes this is correctly interpreted by other nationalities, but more often it is not.[65]

Americans, for instance, are concerned with the future. This is often not true of the Arab. Hall cites the following example of the American agriculturist who traveled to Egypt to teach modern methods of farming:

> At one point in his work he asked his interpreter to ask a farmer how much he expected his field to yield that year. The farmer responded by becoming very excited and angry. In an obvious attempt to soften the reply, the interpreter said, 'He says he doesn't know.' The American realized something had gone wrong, but he had no way of knowing what. [It seems that] . . . the Arabs regard anyone who tries to look into the future as slightly insane. When the American

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[65] **Edward T. Hall, *op. cit.*, p. 1**

> asked him about his future yield, the Egyptian was highly insulted since he thought the American considered him crazy.[66]

Problems that arise in cross-cultural communication are seldom recognized for what they are. "When it becomes apparent to people of different countries that they are not understanding one another, each tends to blame it on 'those foreigners,' on their stupidity, deceit, or craziness." [67]

Adherence to strict spatial and temporal patterns is part of American culture. Since childhood, Americans have been taught to avoid close contact with strangers; for example, even in a crowded elevator a person will be careful not to touch the individual standing next to him. People in many other cultures react in a different manner.

Many foreign peoples are of the opinion that the average American is obsessed with time. This may be true since time in America is measured, spent, valued, saved, wasted, and earned. Time also talks for Americans. It carries messages according to its use. In American culture, for example, an 11:00 p.m. telephone call and a 7:00 a.m. ring at the door generally signify an emergency or some unusual event but most certainly not a social interchange.

There are many other avenues, aside from the incorrect usage of temporal patterns, which may lead to misunderstandings and offensive behavior. Two of these involve the manner and content of speech. The former refers to intonational patterns, which if not correctly learned and used may cause the speaker to appear rude and abrupt; in addition, the wrong intonation may convey an entirely different meaning from what was originally intended.

The second avenue, content, refers to social taboos which are present to some degree in every culture. In the United States, for instance, there are taboos relating to the use of swear words. Standards of decency vary, however, from culture to culture. Behavior which is acceptable in one culture may cause feelings of repugnance in another. In some cultures, for instance, it is taboo to mention the names of one's relatives since this action indicates a lack of respect. It is not difficult, therefore, to imagine the shocked reaction of the peoples of such a culture on viewing that rollicking American comedy, *Charley's Aunt*, with its irreverent treatment of family relationships.[68]

The student should learn the taboos of other cultures in order not to offend nor to condemn unjustly. ". . . standards of decency, like other standards, are relative, not absolute, and no society can claim that its ideas of decency are right and all others are wrong." [69] In no case should a student abandon the standards of his own culture; rather, he should be aware of their worth and strength and the useful purpose which thay serve.

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[66] *Ibid.*, p. 11.

[67] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

[68] Robert A. Hall, Jr., *op. cit.*, p. 21.

[69] *Ibid.*, p. 22.

The paramount factor in the learning of culture is the teacher. Through his complete knowledge and appreciation of the foreign culture, he can develop in his students the understanding and positive attitude that are so necessary for effective communication. In addition to these desired outcomes, the teacher can at the same time nurture growth of openmindedness and tolerance and inculcate ideals of democracy, fairness, and humanity.[70]

Culture may be taught in the regular class period in conjunction with teaching materials, current events and holidays; also, on occasion, it may be taught in special periods allotted for that purpose. In either case, there should be a detailed plan which supplements language instruction.

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[70] Huebener, *op. cit.*, p. 183.

CHAPTER IV

TESTING AND EVALUATION

"TESTS are the truest reflections of the teacher's pedagogical aims: he should beware of his tests for they tell the truth about his objectives as a teacher." [1]

The Purposes of Testing

The purposes of testing may be classified as follows:

- To assist in assessing the ability of the learner
- To determine the progress of learning
- To ascertain specific learning problems
- To guide the teacher in instructional planning
- To indicate where improvement is needed in teaching techniques
- To evaluate the effectiveness of instruction.

Kinds of Tests

There are four basic types of language tests:

Aptitude or prognostic tests assist in predicting the probable success of the language learner; also, they may be used for diagnostic purposes. Since it has been determined that 15-20 percent of the students currently enrolled in foreign language classes are underachievers, it is essential that they be identified and that instruction be designed to avoid or overcome this problem. Aptitude tests are most effective when they take into consideration verbal intelligence, auditory-ability discrimination and motivation.[2] Because foreign language objectives have expanded from two to four skills, the complexity of teaching and learning is greater, and the need for prediction and diagnosis has increased proportionately.

Progress tests measure growth of learning in a specific program.

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[1] Paul Pimsleur, "Testing Foreign Language Learning," *Trends in Language Teaching*, edited by Albert Valdman (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), p. 214.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 182.

Tests in this category include those which accompany some textbook publications and those prepared by the teacher.

Achievement tests measure the student's control of language patterns based on his study in many courses and not on one particular program. Standardized tests belong in this classification.

Proficiency tests assess the student's mastery of skills as they may be applied to a particular purpose. For example, these tests may be used to help determine whether or not a candidate possesses adequate skills and knowledge for the tasks of the classroom.

When a teacher is not familiar with the construction of tests or does not know how to devise a test in relation to new materials, he should use the tests which accompany the textbooks or should pattern his own items along the same lines. As soon as he has gained the necessary knowledge, however, he should depend more and more on the tests which he himself constructs. Only the classroom teacher can adequately "fit" a test to his students.

Evaluation of Tests

To evaluate a test it is necessary to ask if it is valid and if it is reliable.

Validity

- A test is valid if it measures what it is intended to measure.

  A reading test which measures reading alone is a valid test of reading; it would not be a valid test of writing.
- "Validity in language tests depends on the linguistic content of the test and on the situation or technique used to test this content."[3]

  A test of vocabulary which presents a long list of words out of context and requires only that the dictionary meaning of each word be given is not valid. Meanings of words vary according to the context in which they are used.
- "For the language teacher, the degree of test validity is not derived from a statistical analysis of test performance, but from a meticulous analysis of the content of each item and of the test as a whole."[4]

Reliability

- A test is reliable if the scores of the students are consistent. If the same test is given twice to the same set of students and the scores tend to fluctuate for no apparent reason, then the test is not reliable.

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[3] Robert Lado, *Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests* (London: Longmans, Green and Co. Ltd., 1961), p. 30.

[4] Rebecca M. Valette, *Modern Language Testing: A Handbook* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967), p. 30.

- Reliability determines the validity of a test.

  A test is not valid unless it is also reliable; an unreliable test does not measure anything.

Other Criteria

- Does the test provide a sufficient number of samples?

  Any complex body of knowledge can be tested reliably only if there is a generous sampling of test items of the area concerned.

- Are the test items presented in a sequential order of difficulty?

  A test which begins with simple-to-answer items helps to ease a student's tension and to establish self-confidence.

- Do the tests allow for a broad variety of levels of difficulty?

  An effective test should provide measurement of individual capacities.

- Can the test be scored objectively and in a standardized manner?

  The essay-type test tends to be the least reliable of all tests because it calls for subjective scoring.

  > Not only will different teachers disagree about the classification of a group of papers, but an individual teacher, reading the same papers on two different days, may assign different grades to the same essay.[5]

  Speaking tests are particularly difficult to score; therefore, the teacher should select only one or two specific features to grade at a time: for example, the pronunciation of a consonantal cluster or an intonation pattern for asking questions.

- Can the test be satisfactorily completed in the time allotted to it?

  The length of a test poses definite problems. If it is too short, it may not be comprehensive enough; on the other hand, if the test is too long and students are compelled to rush through it, there will be unnecessary errors and a sense of dissatisfaction if not defeat.

- Are the test directions clear and concise?

  Lengthy, involved instructions clutter the mind of the student and the test itself. Directions should be as brief as possible and to the point. The student must understand at all times what he is to do or, obviously, he cannot perform at all.

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[5] *Ibid.*, p. 32.

The Nature of Testing

"Students of the same age and approximately the same size do not learn anything at the same rate, in the same sequence, or with the same degree of success, even when they are instructed simultaneously by one teacher." [6]

Although it would be desirable, therefore, for the teacher to prepare and use 30 separate lesson plans for a class of 30 students, such action is not feasible. Until better means of individualized instruction are devised, the teacher should select one or several approaches which he feels would be most effective in instructing the majority of the students in the class and in meeting the special requirements of others.

Test what you teach and *teach what you test* is perhaps the most important advice that can be given a teacher. A test which emphasizes knowledge of grammar when the instruction has been geared to aural comprehension is of no value. Such a test is unfair to the student and relays no information to the teacher on the effectiveness of his instruction. Such testing also defeats established goals. If the teacher has set fluency in audio-lingual skills as one of the course objectives but then tests structure exclusively, the students, regardless of the quality and concentration of instruction, will largely ignore the practice of oral-aural skills and, instead, will center their efforts on learning items relating to grammar.

Testing is an integral part of classroom instruction and cannot be considered apart from classroom activities. If testing is not regarded in such a manner, it has no educational value. Tests, utilized as a natural function of teaching, become effective tools for instruction and afford both student and teacher an opportunity for self-measurement.

> Good teachers not only know what they want to teach to their students, and how they intend to teach it, but they also know how to check from time to time to see whether they actually are teaching it. . . . These are the teachers who think they have not taught unless the student has learned. They are to be distinguished from another type of teacher, who arranges the content of his teaching in a logical, orderly way, exposes students to it and provides opportunities for practice, then considers the job done; if the student does not learn, it is his fault—not the teacher's.[7]

"The theory of foreign language testing," according to Lado, "is based on present linguistic understanding of language and on observations concerning the role of habit in learning a foreign language." [8]

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[6] Henry Chauncey and John E. Dobbin, *Testing: Its Place in Education Today* (New York: Harper and Row, 1963), p. 2.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 93.

[8] Lado (1961), *op. cit.*, p. 22.

In elaboration of this statement, Lado further says that the theory of language testing assumes that

> . . . Language is a system of habits of communication.[9]
>
> . . . Linguistic and cultural meanings communicated through languages are also structured and associated to the formal elements [of language structure and patterns].[10]
>
> . . . Testing control of the problems is testing control of the language.[11]
>
> . . . Problems are those units and patterns that do not have a counterpart in the native language or that have counterparts with structurally different distribution or meaning.[12]
>
> . . . The student does not know these units and patterns that are problems unless he can use them at normal conversational or reading speed in linguistically valid situations, that is, situations that parallel those of language in use.[13]

Tests should be administered under optimum conditions. The teacher should have the undivided attention of all students. Extraneous activity or noise should not be permitted to interfere. All students should be able to hear and see adequately. Electronic or visual aids used in testing should be checked in advance to assure their proper functioning.

Test Follow-Up

When a student has studied diligently for a test, he is anxious to know the results. The test papers, therefore, should be returned at the earliest possible moment. Such action not only gives the student the information he desires, but serves to reinforce instruction.

A good self-teaching device is for the student to grade his own paper whenever possible. Many teachers advocate exchange of papers, and although this may at times be an effective practice, caution must be exercised. The self-concept and dignity of the slow learner is often irreparably damaged when his shortcomings are constantly revealed to his peers. For the same reason, a teacher should not ask a student to read aloud his grade in class.

Another area which must receive special care is the review of the test in class by the teacher. The students not only must know the errors they have made but they also must know how to avoid them in the future. Students can learn this best not through lengthy explanations given in English, but through practice of models that the teacher has prepared in advance and which are similar in structure to the test items. This means that the teacher will have to note recurring areas of errors and anticipate probable questions.

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[9] *Loc. cit.*

[10] *Loc. cit.*

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 24.

[12] *Loc. cit.*

[13] *Loc. cit.*

A warning signal is hoisted if there are many student failures of the test as a whole or of a particular section of the test. The students either are not learning and, therefore, have not received the proper instruction, or the test is not satisfactory.

Other factors which determine student performance on a test involve the student's physical condition, his emotional state, and the conditions that surround the testing situation. When a student has consistently passed tests but suddenly fails or receives a low grade, he may be under stress of some kind and should be given another opportunity to take the test.

Modern Language Testing

The fact that modern foreign language learning stresses the listening and comprehension skills as well as reading and writing has caused changes in the nature of testing. The vocabularly test, the unit or six-weeks test, and the semester examination, together with a few daily, written-quiz grades, formerly dominated the process for arriving at a student's grade and for evaluating the effectiveness of the program. Rarely was the student's oral performance evaluated in detail. Such a limited system of evaluation is no longer valid. The process of testing and evaluation has expanded in concept and scope to cover four skills instead of two, to become a part of almost every day's instructional activities, and to play a more natural and subtle role in instruction.

In fact the word *testing* is not adequately descriptive for present-day application unless it also implies evaluation. The teacher should incorporate evaluation into his grading system by keeping daily notes and comments on facets of the students' performance. Obviously, he cannot do this for every aspect of teaching, for every student in the class every day, but he must do some of these things almost every day. For example, one day he might check 12 students on their ability to respond to variations on a certain dialogue. The next, he might record a dictation grade for all students. On another he could evaluate several students' pronunciation of a certain sound.

The conventional A-E or F system or use of percentages is often inappropriate for such grading techniques because it is a psychological hazard for students. A 1-5 scale may be used more effectively; letters representing such values as excellent, good, and poor also are practical. These ratings can be translated easily (according to a procedure established by the teacher) into the language of the school's grading system. Brief verbal notes also should be made on occasion.

The mechanics of such an evaluation system should be subtle. The teacher standing over a student, waiting for a response, ready to make a note in the gradebook the moment the student errs, never divulging any of the notations until grades are assigned, presents a formidable problem to the student. Indeed, language learning itself then becomes formidable. A teacher, however, provides a basic service to instruction when he shares analytical notations with students in a language they understand.

A thorough system of evaluation not only helps the student, it also gives the teacher a better analysis of his own effectiveness.

Usually the teacher or department head prepares a form which is duplicated for use in class. The most efficient form may provide space for a week's notes. After it is used for conferences with students, the salient information is extracted, converted to the language of the official grading system and recorded in the grade book. An example of a teacher's completed weekly note sheet follows (only a portion of the class is shown):

Class: Español II
Dates: February 16-20
Teacher: Sra. Robbins

STUDENT'S NAME	Answers to Dialogue Questions Mon. 16	Pronunciation of "l" "ll" Tues. 17	Dictation (Unit 8) Wed. 18	Thurs. 19	Placement of Two Objects (Drill) Fri. 20
Abernathy, Tom	4 Accurate but slow	4			5 Immediate
Cordin, Bill		4			3 Slow, not sure
Schulz, Jerry	4				4 With Infinitives
Finch, Susan		5			
Jordon, Rose	5 Excellent	3 Too low in throat			
Kushman, Rhonda	2 Doesn't know basic dialogue				3

NOTE: Wednesday's grade, a dictation which was graded after class was over, was recorded directly into the grade book. No grade on Thursday.

POINT VALUE: 5 = A 4 = B 3 = C 2 = D 1 = E or F.

5 is top rating.

Conversion to six-weeks grade:

At the end of the six weeks, Bill Cordin has:

4 — 5's
8 — 4's
3 — 3's
1 — 2
0 — 1's

These are multiplied and the totals added; the grand total of points is then divided by the total number of such grades recorded:

4 x 5 = 20
8 x 4 = 32
3 x 3 = 9
1 x 2 = 2
0 x 1 = 0
16) 63 (3 15/16 = 4

Bill's score turns out to be a 4 which is clearly a B on the teacher's scale. This grade is then considered with the test and quiz grades for arriving at a final six-weeks' grade.

This technique is suggested as one way in which a teacher may evaluate all aspects of a student's performance.

Latin Testing

The recent modifications in Latin instruction are being reflected in testing materials.

For example, bilingual tests—in this instance, English and Latin words and expressions in a single test item—are often replaced by those of a monolingual nature. Instructions to the students are generally in English, but the test item itself involves only Latin.

The following material from a Latin text[14] illustrates how such items can be constructed:

Answer the following questions using the suggested words in the appropriate case.[15]

Model: Quid agit Anna? (spectat) (canis)
Anna canem spectat.

Change the following sentences from active to passive voice.[16]

Model: Canis puellam oculō spectat.
Puella ā cane oculō spectatur.

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[14] Cyprian Towey and Stanislaus Akielaszek, *Lingua Latina Viva I* (New York: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966).

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 23.

[16] *Loc. cit.*

Make three questions out of each of the following sentences, changing word order if necessary.[17]

Model: Equus ā puellā faciē quoque tangitur.
Quis ā puellā faciē quoque tangitur?
Ā quō equus faciē quoque tangitur?
Tangiturne equus ā puellā faciē quoque?

Copy the following selection and supply the missing letters.[18]

> Qu___ est Paulus? Paulus es___ puer. Qu___ agi___ Paulus? Paulus vide___ can___. Videtne quoque equ___ puer? Certē.

Copy the following selection, substituting the correct form of the suggested nouns, pronouns, and adjectives. (The nominative singular is given.)[19]

> Sed dum flōrēs carpēbat, magis et magis procul ā casā (māter) (suus) discessit et per (silva) (nigerrimus) processit.

Write relative clauses in the blank spaces according to the meaning of the main sentences.[20]

Model: Discipulis, quī ____________________, librum legit.
Discipulis, quī ad mēnsam sedet, librum legit.

Rewrite the following sentences, using the suggested verbs in the future perfect tense. (The present infinitive is given.)[21]

Ego Paulum ad tabulam nigram (dūcere).
Nos omnēs pultem (comedere).

Sample Test Items

Although it might be useful to present concrete samples of test items that represent all skills and languages, it is not feasible to do so. This information is available to teachers through the materials which accompany their texts and through such references as books by Brooks, Pimsleur, Lado, and Valette which are referred to in this publication. The reader is encouraged to make intensive use of these volumes.

The appendix and bibliography in *Modern Language Testing: A Handbook*,[22] contain detailed information concerning available commercial language tests (prognostic, progress, achievement, and proficiency).

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[17] *Ibid.*, p. 24.
[18] *Ibid.*, p. 42.
[19] *Ibid.*, p. 142.
[20] *Loc. cit.*
[21] *Ibid.*, p. 243.
[22] Valette (1967).

Evaluation of Instruction

Each teacher should evaluate his own effectiveness in foreign language instruction; likewise, the members of the department should collectively assess the results of the total program.

In addition to the use of student grades for teacher and program effectiveness, other valuable instruments in evaluating instruction include the following: the "MLA Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages" (Appendix B, pp. 114-116); "Areas and Content of Competence" [for Latin teachers] (Appendix C, pp. 116-118); and "Evaluative Criteria for Foreign Languages" (Appendix D, pp. 119-125).

CHAPTER V

LEARNING AIDS AND MATERIALS

ANY individual who is directly involved in the teaching of foreign languages is familiar with the volume of learning materials available for classroom use. This superabundance of teaching and learning aids can be either beneficial or detrimental depending upon the choice and the use made of them by the teacher.

For materials to be fully effective, the following steps should be taken:

- The needs, individual differences, age, and interests of the students should be considered.
- The objectives of the course should be defined.
- The methods to attain these objectives should be determined.
- The language program should be carefully planned.

Basal Texts

Modern Languages

Textbooks in modern foreign languages should reflect changes in this field during the past several years. Consistent application of structural techniques should be the major textbook characteristic. Language should be presented as a living, changing communication system rather than as a set of inviolable rules.

Basic Principles

The texts should:

1. Present language as a four-skill system of communication, emphasizing hearing, speaking, reading, writing, in that order
2. Be concerned with the development of language habits rather than academic problem-solving
3. Emphasize usage of the language over learning rules about the language
4. Be based on a contrastive linguistic analysis of the foreign language with the native language.

5. Present language and culture as a complete system of communication rather than a listing of disparate items
6. Present culture as a manisfestation of the people's beliefs, traditions, and way of life
7. Present material for the teaching and drilling of basic structural items in isolation.
8. Provide sufficient drill to enable students to use the foreign language proficiently
9. Present vocabulary in context
10. Present structural items and vocabulary in a limited but gradual and progressive manner
11. Reinforce through reading and writing what has been learned audio-lingually
12. Present teaching and testing procedures using the foreign language exclusively
13. Provide for authentic pronunciation by means of frequent practice, instructional drills and correlated tapes
14. Present varied types of reading material rather than exclusive study of literature
15. Consider the current as well as the historical cultural situations
16. Be correlated with taped materials which are audio-lingual and readily available.

Latin

Latin textbooks should be oriented and directed toward a contrastive linguistic analysis with respect to sound, grammar, vocabulary, and culture. Particular emphasis should be placed on Latin literature and on contributions of the Roman civilization to Western culture.

Basic Principles

The texts should:

1. Emphasize Latin as a language rather than as a set of rules
2. Contain dialogues (a) to remind students that Latin was a spoken tongue and (b) to reinforce learning through the oral-aural skills
3. Present structural items, vocabulary, reading, and writing in a limited but gradual and progressive manner
4. Present sufficient reading, writing, and structural drill, including oral drill, to meet the individual needs and assignments
5. Present explanations of grammar in direct, clear, and understandable terms

6. Provide reading material which reinforces the grammar being studied
7. Give extensive treatment to Latin word formation, English derivatives, and well-known Latin phrases
8. Present culture as a manifestation of the people's beliefs, traditions, and way of life
9. Relate the historical and cultural situation to modern day life
10. Present a variety of authentic literary selections with minimum adaptation
11. Include literary selections from post-classical authors as well as classical authors
12. Provide information concerning the lives of the authors being studied and pertinent help for the appreciation of Latin literature
13. Include frequent annotations explaining historical and literary material presented; i.e., rhetorical devices and metrical analysis
14. Be correlated with taped materials and visual aids.

Textbooks for both modern languages and Latin should emphasize the function and aspects of language in proportion to their significance, provide for frequent and systematic reinforcement of review material, and be accompanied by a teacher's manual. The manual should contain:

- A linguistic description of the language
- Classroom techniques for presenting the material
- Test material in keeping with the methods used.

Supplementary Materials

In the prereading and early stages of language learning, materials which supplement the basal texts can create interest in the country and people whose language is being studied. Teachers should encourage students to read *in English* about the culture, history, and geography of the foreign nation. There should be a good library which includes books on history, biography, and travel, and periodicals on current events.

As soon as students can read the language, supplementary materials may be introduced. These materials should be carefully graded and correlated, if possible, with the basic text to meet individual differences and provide additional motivation. Judgment, however, should be exercised on the use of such materials. Too many, too soon, often weaken basic instruction.

Audio-visual Aids

Since it is not possible for every student to learn a foreign language through actual experience in the foreign country nor to have direct contact with the foreign culture, effective substitutes are necessary. Audio-visual aids are such substitutes; moreover, they are innate to basic instruction.

Innumerable commercial materials and equipment are available to the teacher. The number of such aids and devices has become so extensive that it is now a question of wise selection rather than simple availability.

Pictures and posters displayed in the classroom should be colorful and pleasing to the eye, timely, authentic, of educational value, and in good taste.

A bulletin board is a necessary part of each classroom and should contain items relating to the work at hand. It should be orderly, interesting, and attractive. For motivation, students should be partially responsible for planning and maintaining displays. The teacher should assist in selecting a theme, check on the type and authenticity of the items, and assure that the language used in the captions and labels is *correct.*

The *blackboard* remains the simplest and most universally available visual aid. For effective use

- The blackboard should be neat and uncluttered and contain a few important points arranged in an orderly manner
- The board should be kept clean, and items from one class should not be left for another class to see
- Glare from the sun or artificial lighting should be avoided
- Written material should be legible, easily read by all students, and *correct.*

The *flannel board* is a section of plywood or similar material with a piece of flannel stretched over it. Flat objects such as pictures, cutouts, and clippings will adhere to the flannel without the use of tacks or adhesives. An effective visual aid, the flannel board is used extensively in the elementary grades and can also be used at other levels of instruction.

Slides and filmstrips are particularly useful for showing landscapes, buildings, and other such objects. Slides and filmstrips also can illustrate a series of presentations varying in purpose or in level of language difficulty. They lend themselves well to teacher and individual student comments.

The *opaque projector* is an effective machine for showing printed material, reproductions of famous paintings, material from publications, and objects such as coins and medals. To help students with written work, the teacher either can point out errors on a corrected composition or display an uncorrected composition and ask for group correction. Work with the opaque projector should be done at the first of class since the room must be dark for clear projections and pupils tend to become drowsy.

The *overhead projector,* which projects enlarged images of transparent material on a screen above and behind the teacher, is a significant development in audio-visual aids. The projector allows the teacher (1) to face the class while presenting material (tests, drills, slides, pictures); (2) to prepare material in advance and place it on sheets or a removable roll of acetate which may be easily moved into the desired position; and (3) to focus students' attention on specific words, phrases, or sentences. Certain copying machines reproduce onto the acetate copies of printed material, and these transparencies can be used with the overhead projector.

The *film* or *motion picture* effectively holds the attention of the class and increases the sense of reality through motion, sound, and color. It is also the medium which probably teaches best the imponderables; i.e., the attitudes, interests, and ideals.[1] For best use of motion pictures the teacher should

- Know what films are available and how to obtain them
- Select films which are educationally worthwhile and well-coordinated with the regular classroom instruction as to topics, vocabulary, and structural development
- Know how to operate the projector or have someone present who has the necessary skill and knowledge
- Review the film for quality, suitability, and content
- Inform students, in advance, of the theme of the film and introduce drill and usage of new vocabulary that might be encountered
- Prepare questions to guide viewing and comprehension
- Use film text, if suitable, for language mastery drills
- Follow-up the film with questions and/or a discussion of the contents.

Record players and *recordings* can be effective in teaching songs, dialogues, and appreciation of literary selections and music of the foreign country. Practice records correlated with the texts are available from some publishing companies. Depending on the school system, students may check out records from the library for study at home or may be able to purchase them.

The *tape recorder* is essential to the learning activities of the language classroom. It is as basic to the language teacher as the microscope is to the biology instructor. Each language teacher should be provided with a tape recorder and tapes which are correlated with the textbooks. It is the teacher's responsibility to have the tape recorder ready for use during the class period and to employ the tapes frequently in basic foreign language instruction.

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[1] Theodore Huebener, *Audio-Visual Techniques in Teaching Foreign Languages* (New York: New York University Press, 1960), p. 50.

Tapes correlated with the texbooks and supplementary tapes are significant because they do the following:

- Permit students to hear authentic recordings of native speakers with a variety of voices and regional differences in pronunciation and intonation
- Assist in improving the fluency of the teacher who has had or who seldom has the opportunity to practice listening and speaking skills
- Serve as models for repetitive material, thus conserving the teacher's strength and voice
- Maintain a regulated speed for student response
- Allow the teacher to listen to individual student responses and provide individual assistance.

With the use of tapes the teacher assumes added responsibility. He has the duty of assuring the coordination of tapes with textbook materials, of operating the recorder and setting the volume and tone controls at the most effective level, of observing and listening carefully to individual responses, and of determining the length of the time that the tape should be played and the necessity for repetition of material.

The *language laboratory* offers exciting possibilities for enhancing instruction in the listening and speaking skills; paradoxically, it also offers potential dangers since "it is easily subject to over-use, misuse, and unrelated use."[2]

The following are things the language laboratory can do:[3]

1. Provide for active simultaneous participation of all students in a class in listening and listening-speaking practice in or out of class
2. Provide a variety of authentic native voices as consistent and untiring models for student practice
3. Provide for individual differences through guided practice in individualized-group, small group, or individual study situations with facilities for student self-instruction and self-evaluation at his own learning rate
4. Free the teacher from the tedious task of presenting repetitive drill material, thus allowing him to perform a dual role simultaneously

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[2] Joseph C. Hutchinson, *Modern Foreign Languages in High School: The Language Laboratory*, Bulletin 1961, No. 23 (Washington, D. C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961), p. 9.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9.

5. Afford the teacher an opportunity and convenient facilities for evaluating and correcting the performance of individual students without interrupting the work of others
6. Provide intimate contact with the language, equal hearing conditions for all students, and facilities for simultaneous grouping of different activities through the use of headphones
7. Provide a reassuring sense of privacy, reduce distractions, and encourage concentration through the use of headphones. . .
8. Provide facilities for group testing of the listening and speaking skills
9. Provide for special coordination of audio and visual materials in sequential learning series or in isolated presentations
10. Provide aid to some teachers, who for various reasons do not have adequate control of the spoken language, in improving their own audio-lingual proficiency.

To be effective the language laboratory should serve "as an integral part of a program in which audio-lingual instruction forms the basis for the progressive and continuous development of all the language skills." [4] In addition, the materials used should be coordinated with those of the classroom.

> The language laboratory is at its weakest . . . when the teacher is expected to prepare all the recorded practice materials, when it is used to further unsound pedagogical practices, and when it allows the machine to interfere with teacher-student rapport.[5]

Prior to installation of laboratory facilities it is strongly recommended that there be

> . . . a reappraisal of the school's foreign language curriculum. Such facilities by their mere presence do not guarantee the improvement of instruction. Their proper role is that of a useful tool which can help implement the work that needs to be done, provided the tool is used skillfully as an integral and planned part of the program. Too much emphasis on the 'hardware' aspects of such facilities can lead to the dangerous position of owning a language laboratory as a status symbol.[6]

Additional aspects related to the acquisition, planning, and use of the language laboratory are discussed in *The Language Laboratory in Virginia: a Survey Report.*[7]

Educational television programs possess both advantages and disadvantages. They improve instruction through providing uninterrupted lessons, variation in voices and techniques, and carefully planned materials which, because of the time element, would be difficult for the clasroom teacher to prepare.

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[4] *Ibid.*, p. 9.

[5] *Loc. cit.*

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

[7] Division of Educational Research (Richmond: Virginia State Department of Education, 1967).

Televised programs may be ineffective if they are not coordinated with class work or do not have the teacher's support. In some instances (generally in the elementary schools), an inexperienced teacher or one with little or no language training is assigned to a class using televised programs as the basis for foreign language instruction. The teacher often feels insecure and inadequate to conduct such a class and answer students' questions; therefore, he may resent the language program and develop negative attitudes towards language learning. An additional problem exists if the trained language teacher feels that the televised programs are replacing him as the primary source of instruction and information.

To be effective, educational television programs should be carefully prepared to meet individual and curriculum needs. They should be supplementary in nature, in accord with the sequence of instruction, and correlated with textbooks and materials. In addition, the programs should have the support of faculty and administration and be used by teachers trained in foreign language teaching and familiar with educational television procedures.

Regardless of which learning materials and aids are used, it is the teacher who determines their worth and is solely responsible for their effectiveness in instruction. It is not an easy responsibility. It is necessary that the teacher possess extensive training, preparation, and knowledge; a willingness to examine, evaluate, and experiment with new products; and a flexible attitude towards changing objectives and methods of foreign language teaching and learning.

CHAPTER VI

THE LANGUAGE LEARNER

The Nature of Learning

IN viewing foreign language learning, it would be advisable to consider the nature of learning to determine if there are ways in which it may become more pleasurable and, as a result, more rewarding.

There are many concepts "... in use in education today which come from many sources and which have been the subject of promising research. These areas of research include:

1. *Identification.* Children learn by and through identification with others, including their parents, peers, and teachers. Thus it is important that they have good models.
2. *Learning by Discovery.* Obtaining knowledge for oneself by the use of one's own mind frequently has advantages in terms of motivation, organization of what is learned, retention, and meaningfulness.
3. *Empathy.* Openness, trust, and security in human relationships free intelligence and enable boys and girls, and teachers as well, to learn more and to be more successful in activities in which they are jointly engaged.
4. *Culture Potential.* Anthropological studies have emphasized that different societies and cultures cultivate different qualities and capacities. Learning experiences that build on the cultural capacities of individuals and groups are particularly successful.
5. *Knowledge about Learners.* Research has shown that students learn more when teachers know them as individuals.
6. *Methods of Increasing Transfer.* When the teacher points out the possibility of transfer and develops and applies generalizations with the learners, transfer is more likely to occur.
7. *Zeal for Learning and Knowledge.* Students learn to like learning from teachers who love knowledge, from communities that provide resources for learning, and from a home environment which supports the search for knowledge by example and by the materials provided.
8. *Sex Differences.* Too little attention is given to the differences

in interests, needs, and problems of boys and girls in the school curriculum."[1]

Motivation for learning is increased if, in the process of learning, the student has a sense of belonging and being wanted, is free from threats, and has an opportunity for success and recognition, and a feeling of self-respect. He must be presented situations in which he can exert self-direction, and materials which are of immediate interest and which he can relate to the world in which he lives.

Learning a Foreign Language

In regard to foreign languages, "the successful language learner is essentially the pupil who has (consciously or not) devised a successful self-teaching method."[2] The teacher may help the student develop such a method by suggesting that he:

- Mimic the model as closely as possible. (If he has the advantage of observing a native speaker, the student should try to form the sounds in the same way that he does; i.e., by shaping his mouth and positioning his tongue in an identical manner.)
- Practice making the foreign language sounds aloud in front of a mirror at home. (This helps him develop proper articulation.)
- Memorize all the material that is requested. (Memorization is one of the basic ingredients of language learning since it provides ready patterns for communication.)
- Always understand the meaning of the utterances he hears and speaks.
- Strive for fluency in all language skills. (Halting speech causes a breakdown in communication because it alters intonation patterns and, therefore, the intended meaning.)
- Work for accuracy in the spoken word. (Effective foreign language habits are established by using correct, not incorrect, speech patterns.)
- Review constantly the material he has studied previously. (Only through review and reinforcement can new language habits become automatic.)
- Avoid the use of English in the classroom; otherwise, the native language habits will interfere with his learning a second language.
- Take advantage of every opportunity he has to use the foreign language: during school, with visitors, in the community, and at home.
- Avoid questions beginning with "why." (Language is arbitrary, not logical. More useful questions begin with "what" or "how.")

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[1] Glen Hass and Kimball Wiles, editors, *Readings in Curriculum* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965), pp. 182-183.

[2] Politzer, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

- Learn to listen and concentrate on what is being said. (Careful listening not only shows consideration for the speaker but brings rewards in information gained. The student will understand directions more fully and, thus, will avoid interrupting class activities unnecessarily by asking for a repetition of instructions.)
- Be neat and accurate in written work. (Very often, someone other than the student will have to read what he has written; in addition, care must be exercised in writing a language which uses a system and alphabet different from the native language.)
- Accept cultural taboos of the people whose language is being studied.
- Avoid being over-critical of what is new in the foreign culture. (The student must examine his own behavior in situations which are parallel to those found in the other culture, then, make objective observations and comparisons.)

The preceding suggestions can be strengthened by further additions. Deletion of any one item, however, will seriously impair foreign language learning and cross-cultural understanding.

To facilitate further language learning and to reach desired outcomes, the student must:

- Establish realistic goals. He should not expect to gain instant control of the language; instead, he should understand that such control will take time, patience, and hard work.
- Understand that what he is learning is worthwhile and contributes to his individual growth and development as a person.
- Develop self-discipline in promptness to class, adherence to assigned duties, and scheduling of work-study activities. Concerning the latter, the student should realize that frequent study sessions of relatively short duration are more effective than lengthy ones spaced farther apart.
- Maintain an alert posture at all times; otherwise, learning attitudes and habits alike will suffer. The student who slouches at his desk and props his feet on a chair gives evidence of inattentiveness, indifference, and a lack of respect and consideration for others: the student who sits in a slumping position often encounters difficulty in projecting his voice; the individual who recites while resting his hand against his mouth or chin distorts the sounds he utters.
- Accept his responsibility to the school by exercising proper care of laboratory and classroom facilities, audio-visual aids, and study materials.
- Accept his responsibility to the class by cooperating with fellow students in class activities.

Age and Learning

Each age group brings its own characteristics to the learning situation. Because of this, the objectives, activities, content, and materials must differ for students of various ages.

Some of the characteristics, objectives, activities, and materials pertaining to the elementary school, the junior high school, and the senior high school child are listed on the following pages. Although the items given are considered particularly appropriate for the age groups under which they are listed, many of them may apply to other groups.

Just as the junior high child is different from the elementary child, so do individuals vary within age groups. Another factor which should be pointed out concerning the use of this outline is that the various lengths of sequences are not considered in relation to their effect on objectives, activities, and materials. The senior high school can and often does include students who have had a foreign language for nine years as well as those who are beginners. The experienced language student in the eleventh grade is more capable of preparing a critique than is a student who is in his second year of study. Teacher discretion, therefore, must be fully utilized in interpreting the listings of objectives, activities, and materials; borowing from across age boundaries is often necessary to meet the needs of all individuals and classes.

In preparing this information on characteristics of the various age groups and the objectives, content, and materials appropriate for these groups, *A Guide for Instruction on Modern Foreign Languages, Grades 4-12*[8] has been used extensively. The reader who wishes more detailed information concerning ages and levels of instruction should consult this publication.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILD

Characteristics

1. Has a remarkably flexible speech mechanism and capacity for language learning.
2. Is prone to imitating.
3. Has a natural propensity for rapid vocabulary expansion.
4. Possesses an unquenchable curiosity.
5. Is enthusiastic about learning.
6. Participates eagerly.
7. Has few inhibitions.

Objectives of Program

1. To develop motivation towards language study and interest in people who speak other languages

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[8] *A Guide for Instruction in Modern Foreign Languages: Grades 4-12.* Curriculum Bulletin No. 27 (St. Paul: State of Minnesota Department of Education, 1965), pp. 29-55.

2. To establish basic pronunciation and intonation patterns which are near-native in authenticity
3. To introduce the study of another culture.

Learning Goals for Students

1. To achieve "aural comprehension of a limited number of sentence patterns common to the language, probably about 400."[4]
2. To memorize "between 80 and 100 percent of the patterns comprehended" and to develop the "ability to use them meaningfully as talk."[5]
3. To learn "to read approximately 60 to 80 per cent of the patterns comprehended."[6]
4. To achieve "command of the writing system to the extent that about 60 to 80 per cent of the material mastered both aurally and lingually can be reproduced correctly spelled, capitalized, and punctuated in dictation exercises and in simple directed writing activities."[7]

Program Activities

1. Emphasis on mimicry activities
   a. Dialogues
   b. Skits
   c. Drills
   d. Copying
2. Games, songs, poems
3. Presentation of a variety of authentic models.

Program Content

Materials dealing with

1. School: classes, teachers, classmates, extra-curricular activities
2. Home: family, foods, leisure, houses
3. Individual: health practices, hobbies, everyday habits
4. Social life: parties, vacations, friends, holidays, special events such as visits to zoos, circuses.

Materials for Instruction

1. Teacher guides

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[4] *Ibid.*, p. 30.
[5] *Loc. cit.*
[6] *Loc. cit.*
[7] *Loc. cit.*

2. Picture books
3. Elementary books in language
4. Tape, disc recordings
5. Puppets
6. Pictures
7. Various props such as pop bottles, pans, dishes, dolls.

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CHILD

The characteristics of this age group are better described than enumerated.

The junior high school, or middle school, student is just that: he is in the middle. He is part child and part adult. He often shows characteristics of both age groups in his responses to a stimulus. He looks for both action and serious talk. He seeks to retain childhood security and obtain adult freedoms. He is becoming aware of sex differences; boys are aloof from the girls and their world, but yet are attracted by them. Girls are bolder in expressing their interest in the opposite sex. Girls are usually more mature physically and intellectually. The junior high school student is more analytical than the younger student. He generalizes better and is more capable of dealing in abstracts and using symbols. He can assimilate more intensive training. Time, colors, and mathematics are more meaningful to him. His memory and attention spans are longer.

Objectives of Program

1. Following the Elementary Program
   a. To continue sequential development of all skills begun in elementary school
      (1) To develop the ability to understand what an educated native says when he is enunciating carefully and speaking simply on a familiar topic.
      (2) To develop the ability to talk without faltering on prepared topics and to use accurately the common expressions needed for getting around in a foreign country.
      (3) To develop the ability to read (without translation) fiction and non-fiction commonly found in the foreign country for children of junior high age.
      (4) To develop the ability to compose simple reports, friendly letters, and skits based on material which has been learned orally.
   b. To continue efforts to motivate towards language study.
   c. To continue efforts to develop interest in and knowledge and tolerance of other peoples.

d. To develop consciousness and understanding of the nature of language, how it works, and how it is used.

2. Beginning a Sequence

The objectives for the student beginning a language in junior high school are essentially the same as those for the child continuing from the elementary program, except that most of them are initiated rather than continued. The beginning student probably will not be as uninhibited in his participation as the student who had an earlier start, nor is he likely to be as accurate in his pronunciation. These factors will probabily prevent him from developing his oral skill to the same degree as his counterpart, and this in turn may be reflected in the development of reading and writing skills.

Program Activities

1. Conversation
2. Pronunciation drills
3. Dialogues
4. Songs, games
5. Skits, dramatizations
6. Group work
7. Reading simple non-fiction, biography, history, plays, short stories, letters, cultural information
8. Copying and dictation
9. Recombination activities in all four skills
10. Summaries, questions and answers, narrations
11. Reorganization of jumbled sentences
12. Written transformation drills
13. Written, summaries, letters, resumés, answers to questions and other controlled writing assignments
14. Reference to grammar for clarification, insight and summary
15. Oral reports
16. Role playing, such as selling a product, telling a joke, presenting a newscast or weather report, presenting a how-to-do-it demonstration.

Program Content

1. Hobbies, sports, recreation
2. Home life
3. School life
4. Heroes
5. Animals
6. History, geography

7. Art, music, customs
8. Science
9. Adventure, mystery
10. Dress, fashion
11. Foods
12. Humor.

Materials for Instruction

1. Films, slides, filmstrips, pictures
2. Recordings of foreign radio programs
3. Supplementary books and magazines containing a variety of simple reading material, cartoons, advertisements, comics
4. Reference books such as encyclopedias, atlases, dictionaries.

THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT

Characteristics

1. Becomes increasingly analytical
2. Is interested in real life: work, career, education
3. Seeks independence from adults
4. Seeks status among peers
5. Possesses more inhibitions than the junior high student
6. Is interested in abstraction and solving problems
7. Becomes less imitative as he grows older
8. Develops a philosophy
9. Is concerned with interrelationships (such as a means of seeking scientific information or humanistic insights).

Objectives of Program

1. To foster an interest in language learning
2. To develop an appreciation for the role that a foreign language can play in education, careers, leisure
3. To develop cross-cultural insights
4. To develop an understanding of language and how it works
5. To develop the ability to communicate as a young adult with native speakers on familiar topics of adult interest according to the amount of time he has spent in language study (short or long sequence)
6. To develop the writing skill in accordance with the speaking skill
7. To learn to read (in accordance with the amount of time he has spent in language study) material of different types that native speakers of his own age might read.

Program Activities

1. Use of different models
2. Some continued memorization
3. Dramatization
4. Questions and answers
5. Group work
6. Directed dialogue
7. Oral and written reports
8. Role playing
9. Discussion
10. Guided reading from non-text sources
11. Expressing oral or written opinions
12. Use of libraries and other non-school sources
13. Writing critiques, interpretations and evaluations of literature, art, music, speeches, events
14. Limited creative activities such as writing short poems, stories
15. Writing grammatical drills previously practiced orally.

PROGRAM CONTENT

1. History
2. Sports, hobbies
3. Fashions, dress
4. Family
5. Education
6. Politics, government
7. Science
8. Literature
9. Careers
10. Current events, world affairs
11. Romance
12. Mores, customs.

Materials for Instruction

1. Reference books (atlases, encyclopedias, dictionaries)
2. Maps
3. Films, filmstrips, slides
4. Magazines
5. Foreign radio broadcasts
6. Recordings of music, drama, lectures
7. Supplementary reading material of various levels and content.

All educators, those who organize and administer and those who teach, must realize and keep in mind the implications that human growth and development have for the education of children.

What is learning? It is a multi-faceted process which involves needs, procedures, and styles: it is a private affair which is based on early cultural patterns: it is, in the last analysis, a nebulous entity which conceals far more than it reveals.

> We are determined to educate the children of the United States. We are determined to help them learn. If someone has an idea about how one child learns or all children learn, we are receptive and ready to test the idea. Somehow we must permit children to grow beyond the stage of the inquisitive toddler without losing the joy of learning.[8]

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[8] Donald H. Clark, editor, *The Psychology of Education* (New York: The Free Press, 1967), p. 178.

CHAPTER VII

SEQUENTIAL PROGRAMS

THE nature of this chapter can be summarized in the phrase: "how to put what, where, for how long." It is concerned with the language offerings of elementary, junior (or intermediate or middle), and senior high schools. Consideration is given to the manner in which the various offerings and levels of a language program fit together to form an uninterrupted continuum which by nature must have inferences for the college and university level. Some observations, therefore, will be made concerning the problems of transition from high school to college.

Definition of Terminology

Since many foreign language terms are not always used in the same frame of reference, certain definitions as they apply in this guide are provided.

Sequence (also called *track* or *stream*) is prevalent in Virginia usage. A *sequence* is the length of the language program from the beginning to the end. The sequence in some Virginia school systems is only two years; in others it is as long as nine years.

Level–Brooks defines *level* as a body of material which "contains the amount of learning that can be achieved in an upper grade of the secondary school in classes that meet five times a week and that are at least forty minutes in length." [1] A level may or may not be synonymous with an academic year or nine months of work. For example, there is a growing trend among Virginia junior or intermediate high schools to teach Level I over a two-year period spanning the seventh and eighth grades.

This definition nearly concurs with a Carnegie unit of credit as it functions in Virginia schools.[2]

Sequences in Virginia Schools

There are generally three different sequences in operation in Virginia schools. These sequences parallel the most common practices found elsewhere in the nation. They are shown below in chart form with the most desirable daily time allotments indicated for the different levels of the three sequences:

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[1] Brooks, *op. cit.*, p. 121.

[2] *Standards for the Accrediting of Secondary Schools,* Vol. XXXXII, No. 7. (Richmond: Virginia State Department of Education, 1960), p. 6.

CHART I

LEVEL	9-13 YEAR SEQUENCE	6-YEAR SEQUENCE	3-YEAR SEQUENCE
I	K-6, 1-6, 2-6 (15-30 minutes) 3-6, 4-6, 5-6	7, 8 (30-40 minutes)	9, 10 (50-55 minutes)
II	7, 8 (30-40 minutes)	9 (50-55 minutes)	10, 11 (50-55 minutes)
III	9 (50-55 minutes)	10 (50-55 minutes)	11, 12 (50-55 minutes)
IV	10 (50-55 minutes)	11 (50-55 minutes)	12 (50-55 minutes)
V	11 (50-55 minutes)	12 (50-55 minutes)	
VI	12 (50-55 minutes)		

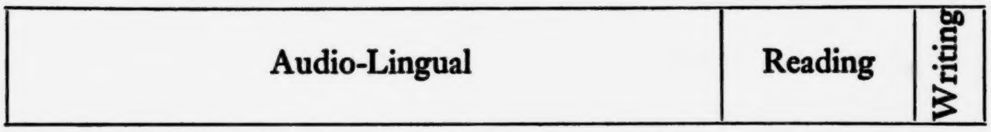
Summary of the Six-year, Five-level Sequence in Modern Languages

The six-year, five-level sequence illustrates the approximate proportions of time that should be devoted to each of the skills during each level of the sequence and the emphasis given at each level. If a longer or shorter sequence is offered, the teacher would have to make slight adjustments in this example to accommodate for varying age groups (see Chapter VI, *The Language Learner,* p. 63). The prereading period of the third-grade, Level-1 student, for instance, will be longer than that of the tenth-grade, Level-1 student; however, both will have devoted approximately the same proportions of their time and efforts to the various skills by the end of Level 1.

In describing the levels of the sequence, bar graphs are used to provide estimates of the amount of time devoted to the four skills. The reader should keep in mind that the total time of the student, including his work at home, is considered in providing these estimates.

The New York State curriculum bulletin, *German for Secondary Schools,*[8] has been used as the basis for this exemplary sequence; however, some modifications have been made.

Modern Foreign Languages
Level I, Grade 7



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[8] *German for Secondary Schools* (Albany: New York State Educaton Department, 1961), pp. 140-144.

- Comprehension, speaking

  "Structures and vocabulary are audio-lingually presented and mastered."[4]

  "Dialogs, conversational sequences and pattern drills characterize learnings."[5]

  Games, pictures, charts, and songs are used frequently.
- "Reading begins with identical speech patterns learned audio-lingually and progresses to recombinations of these familiar patterns."[6]
- "Writing consists primarily of copying words and expressions in speech patterns, sentences and dialogs learned audio-lingually . . . Brief dictations of identical utterances learned audio-lingually and experienced visually are given."[7]
- Cultural content arises from pupils' interests and course materials and is coordinated with other activities.
- Supplementary reading in English is assigned to develop background for cultural topics during the prereading period, and for instances in which needed information is not available in the foreign language at the appropriate reading level, and to establish proper study habits during the period when students can do little work at home in the foreign language.

Modern Foreign Languages

Level I, Grade 8

Audio-Lingual	Reading	Writing

- See Level I, Grade 7 for comprehension and speaking.
- "Reading progresses from identical patterns to recombinations of familiar patterns which have been audio-lingually mastered."[8]
- "Writing continues to be guided. Copying of dialogs and taking dictation of identical speech patterns continue as in Grade 7. Guided writing of drill patterns involving simple transformations and substitutions of familiar patterns is continued. Answering dialog questions audio-lingually mastered and visually experienced begins."[9]
- See Level I, Grade 7 for note on culture.

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[4] *Ibid.*, p. 140.
[5] *Loc. cit.*
[6] *Loc. cit.*
[7] *Loc. cit.*
[8] *Ibid.*, p. 141.
[9] *Loc. cit.*

- Drilling of material previously introduced takes place to assure retention and mastery.

Modern Foreign Languages

Level II, Grade 9

Audio-Lingual	Reading	Writing

- Comprehension, speaking

  "The development of audio-lingual skills continues to be the primary objective."[10]

  "Structures needed for audio-lingual competence are presented in their most useful forms through pattern drills and dialogs. All structures are experienced aurally."[11]

  "Conversational ability is developed on specific topics. Integration with text materials is recommended. Directed dialog . . . is practiced."[12]

- Reading

  The use of identical patterns and recombinations of familiar patterns is continued for teaching reading as in Level I (Intensive reading).

  Limited unfamiliar material which is easily correlated with the basic instructional program is introduced (Extensive reading).

- "Writing of material already learned audio-lingually continues. Guided writing of drill patterns is expanded to include more difficult but still deducible forms of patterns aurally or audio-lingually experienced."[13] Writing includes answers to dialog and directed dialog questions. The answers to these questions as well as to those of a general nature should involve structural changes patterned on the structure(s) found in the question. "Dictations of recombinations of learned patterns are introduced. The writing of patterns or dialogs through recall is included progressively as pupils demonstrate proficiency. Equivalencies of the English are written in the foreign language from English."[14]

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[10] *Loc. cit.*

[11] *Loc. cit.*

[12] *Loc. cit.*

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 142.

[14] *Loc. cit.*

- "Cultural content arises from pupils' interests and course materials and is integrated with the course." [15]

Modern Foreign Languages

Level III, Grade 10

Audio-Lingual	Reading	Writing

- Comprehension, speaking

  Drill continues to cover remaining structural items and to review those previously studied.

  "Audio-lingual activity is integrated with the reading." [16]
  "Oral reporting is correlated with reading material whenever possible. Discussion in simple language ensues." [17]

  "Conversational ability is developed on specific topics." [18]

- Longer but simple and authentic selections are introduced for developing skill in reading. Extensive and intensive approaches are used.
- "Writing includes what pupils can say, in the form of dialogs, oral reports and exercises on the reading. Writing of drill patterns continues . . . Passages heard orally may be written in restated form on previously mastered material. Controlled composition is introduced. Directed composition is practiced." [19]
- "Cultural content continues to be integrated with course materials." [20]

Modern Foreign Languages

Level IV, Grade 11

Audio-Lingual	Reading	Writing

- See Level III, Grade 10, for comprehension-speaking note.

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[15] *Loc. cit.*
[16] *Loc. cit.*
[17] *Loc. cit.*
[18] *Loc. cit.*
[19] *Ibid.*, p. 143.
[20] *Loc. cit.*

- Intensive reading continues and extensive reading is increased. Selections of various subjects on different levels and from different sources, as well as authentic literary selections are used. Some individual choices are made by students with the help of the teacher for purposes of extensive reading.
- "Writing continues to emphasize what pupils can say, but includes, progressively, more and more of the forms characteristic of written expression. The writing of structural and other drill patterns as well as exercises based on the reading continues, along with controlled writing and controlled composition. Controls decrease as pupils show ability."[21] Free composition is introduced; compositions are written on civilization and other topics. Letter-writing is practiced.
- "Cultural content combines a review of the salient features of the civilization in the foreign language with individual and class projects in special fields."[22]

Modern Foreign Languages

Level V, Grade 12

"The final year of the six-year sequence aims to integrate and extend the knowledge and skills learned in previous years."[23] Knowledge is deepened and increased, and "ability to communicate in the foreign language is extended. Critical thinking is developed. Opportunities are provided for individual research and advanced composition."[24]

Audio-Lingual	Reading	Writing

- Comprehension, speaking

  Oral drill to strengthen structural patterns is still used for reinforcement but is chosen more selectively and used less frequently.

  Conversational topics and oral reports become more varied and expressive of thought.
- The reading activities described in the section on Level IV, Grade 11, continue to be expanded with particular attention given to the style, theme, setting, and historical context of literary selections.

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[21] *Loc. cit.*
[22] *Ibid.*, p. 144.
[23] *Loc. cit.*
[24] *Loc. cit.*

- "The expression of the written as well as spoken language becomes important. Exercises on correct structural forms arising from individual or class needs may be provided. Reports on the reading, summarizing, paraphrasing and note taking in the foreign language from lecture, tape and books are practiced. Quality and individual expressions are stressed." [25] The writing of narrative is practiced and used within the framework of guided writing.
- Cultural content emphasizes contemporary developments within the country or countries of the people speaking the language, as well as social and historical backgrounds of literature studied. Special projects on various cultural topics are developed. The study of culture continues to stem from pupils' interests and basic content, and it is closely integrated with other foreign language instruction. Cultural studies in foreign language classes also might be coordinated with pupils' interests in history, science, music, art, humanities or other classes within the curriculum.

Summary of the Five-year, Five-level Sequence in Latin

The acquisition of the hearing and speaking skills is not the primary objective of Latin study; instead, the purpose is to present a picture of what the past has contributed to the language and culture of English-speaking peoples. Audio-lingual practice, however, should not be ignored since it leads to a more effective mastery of structural elements which, in turn, assists students to achieve a desired result to read Latin with understanding and pleasure.

The following graphs not only allow for the changed emphasis in Latin on the audio-lingual skills but also for the special attention that the study of culture should receive in the Latin program.

Latin

Level I

Audio-Lingual	Reading	Writing	Culture

- Audio-Lingual

  The course begins with greetings, classroom expressions, and directions given in Latin.

  Structures and vocabulary are audio-lingually presented and mastered through pattern drills and use of simple phrases.

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[25] *Loc. cit.*

Dialogs, brief conversational sequences, songs, and games are used frequently.

Oral reading by individuals and groups is practiced.

- Reading

  Reading is begun with material already learned audio-lingually.

  Reading that has not been orally presented is introduced gradually.

  Simple stories concerning mythology, history, geography, customs, and famous personalities are used.

  Stories which are read make use of the structures already learned.

- Writing

  Writing is first restricted to imitating patterns which have been learned audio-lingually.

  Guided writing is utilized. It is based on pattern drills experienced visually and audio-lingually.

  Pupils begin to write answers based on material which has been read.

- Culture

  Culture is integrated with course material and pupil interests.

  Influence of Latin on the English language is stressed by a study of roots, prefixes, and suffixes.

  Stress is placed on the everyday life of a Roman.

Latin

Level II

Audio-Lingual	Reading	Writing	Culture

- Audio-Lingual

  The development of audio-lingual skills continues.

  New structures and words are presented audio-lingually.

  Reading material is utilized for audio-lingual experience.

Individual and choral readings are practiced.

Question and answer periods based on records, tapes, and films are used.

- Reading

Readings become more complex.

Supplementary reading of simple material is frequently required.

Reading of medieval Latin is introduced.

Pupils begin to read in some depth the works of authors of the classical period (Caesar).

- Writing

Written advanced structure drills implement oral work.

Writing continues to be guided.

Short summaries are written of stories which have been read.

Pupils begin to write letters about some phase of the material which has been read.

- Culture

Films and pictures related to the material read are shown to pupils.

English language tapes and recordings which are integrated with material studied are used.

A study is made of Roman military history, tactics, and weapons.

A more thorough and intensive study of derivatives is continued.

Latin

Level III

Audio-Lingual	Reading	Writing	Culture

- Audio-Lingual

Includes a review of structure and vocabulary of materials studied during the preceding years.

Structure and vocabulary drills for more advanced forms are continued.

- Reading

  The reading includes prose selections of literary value.

  The style and content of one author, usually Cicero, is studied in depth.

  Analysis of prose is begun.

  Supplementary reading of material in the foreign language assumes a major role.

- Writing

  Controlled writing of drill patterns continues.

  Summaries of material studied are written.

  Content of an essay or letter which has been read is put in simple prose form.

  Letter writing is included.

- Culture

  Extensive and intensive work with derivatives continues.

  Study is begun of Roman politics, government, law, and ethics.

  The historical, cultural, and social importance of Roman contributions to Western civilization is emphasized.

Latin

Level IV

Audio-Lingual	Reading	Writing	Culture

- Audio-Lingual

  Audio-lingual activities are closely integrated with the reading.

  Oral reading of poetry is begun.

  Scansion of poetry is practiced.

- Reading

  Reading combines cultural information and works of literary merit.

  The literary works of one poet, usually Vergil, are studied in detail.

  Selections from other poets form an important part of the reading.

  Supplementary reading of material in the foreign language is increased.

- Writing

  Use is made of written exercises containing important structural patterns.

  The material which has been read is summarized.

  An original poem is composed.

- Culture

  Continued stress is placed on derivative studies.

  The development and influence of Latin poetry is studied.

  A concerted effort is made to increase the student's knowledge of Roman customs and their influence on the present.

Latin

Level V

Audio-Lingual	Reading	Writing	Culture

- Audio-Lingual

  Audio-lingual activities are integrated with reading.
  Oral reading is continued.

- Reading

  Reading of plays is introduced.
  Reading of lyric poetry is emphasized.
  Reading of philosophical works is begun.

- Writing

  Controls on writing compositions are gradually decreased.

Quality and individual expression are stressed.

Some creative work is undertaken.

- Culture

  Content emphasizes the historical and cultural background of the literature studied.

  Special projects on the art, music, and literature of the Romans are assigned according to the interest of the individual student.

  Derivative study is continued.

The Need for Coordination

The unusual growth of foreign language programs during the last decade has caused a number of problems in organization and sequence. In some instances elementary programs have been initiated without consultation with the high school staff. Many students have entered the first level; but only a small percentage of the original group has completed the second level. Teachers have tried desperately to "prepare their students for college work" only to end up wondering what college language learning involves since it varies greatly from school to school. At the source of these and numerous other difficulties is the fact that in many cases there is little or no planning, organization, or coordination among the various levels or schools.

Coordinating sequences will never be an easy matter as long as there is more than one foreign language teacher. No national curriculum exists. Neither is there a State curriculum; the only curriculum regulation mandated by the State of Virginia is the need to select the basal text from those approved by the State Board of Education. No one tells the teacher, and rightly so, how many pages of the text to cover or what to teach. One teacher makes one decision, another makes another, and the need for coordination soon manifests itself.

Local school systems should be encouraged to develop their own curriculum guides to help coordinate coverage of content and to establish reasonable objectives for teachers.

Specialist Supervision

Some local school systems have employed foreign language supervisors or coordinators to help prevent and to solve problems of organization and coordination. This is regarded as the most effective means of providing coordination. Most of these administrators are successful former classroom teachers. Through utilization of this practical experience combined with thorough professional training and other language experience, they make major strides in overcoming the problems between different levels, schools, or teachers. They also provide other types of leadership for the foreign language program. It is most unfortunate that more school systems have not been able to provide this leadership. Although some school systems are too small to afford or to utilize full-time specialist supervision for foreign languages, it would be desirable for several adjacent divisions to combine their efforts and employ one person to serve several political subdivisions. The foreign language program with a minimum of teachers needs more help in some respects than do programs with many teachers.

The growth of foreign language programs has created a critical need for specialist coordinators. This is particularly true when languages are offered below the senior high level, and *experience has shown that any foreign language program beginning in the elementary school must have a full-time coordinator with responsibility for all levels of instruction or it cannot long survive in its entirety.* Aside from assuring the sequence of instruction and materials, the coordinator also must arrange for separate classes in the intermediate and high school programs for those students who begin language study in the elementary school.

General Supervision

The most common practice used in coordinating foreign language programs in Virginia is to designate a general supervisor, director of instruction, or other administrator to assist the teachers. Whereas, the importance of such personnel within the overall school administration is obvious, the coordinator designated undoubtedly has many disadvantages in functioning effectively and to the extent needed in any specialized area of teaching. He has too many departments for which he is responsible to fulfill all of his duties to each of them. He is only rarely a former foreign language teacher, and if he is, that experience is usually too remote to be of much assistance to him with today's different and expanded programs. He can, however, offer some valuable services. For example, he can:

- Provide moral support for language teachers.
- Provide opportunities for teachers to meet together to work out their own problems.
- Secure consultants and supervisors who are specialists in teaching foreign language to supplement his more general assistance. Such supplementary personnel can be obtained from the State Department of Education, neighboring school systems, colleges, textbook publishers, and other sources.
- Coordinate such housekeeping details as the ordering of materials and supplies and assuring adequate teaching facilities.
- Assist with decisions concerning the role of foreign languages as a part of the school curriculum.

- Assist in analyzing the successes and shortcoming of the foreign language program.

Teacher Initiative

If there is no specialist coordinator for a county or city foreign language program, greater responsibility is placed on the classroom teacher to assume the initiative in cooperating with all foreign language teachers. Also, at times, it is advisable that the language teacher discuss mutual concerns with the school administrators.

Foreign language teachers should always be aware that in their classrooms they are working for one basic goal: to teach students foreign languages. During the course of the language program, students usually are taught by several teachers. If these teachers do not cooperate, failure may result.

Another point that should be kept in mind is that language learning is a continuous process which can be likened to a pyramid. Each level is built upon those beneath it; none can be skipped if a higher one is to be reached. The responsibility of the teacher is to supply a given step at a given time. Failure to do this results in retarding, or preventing, the construction of the rest of the pyramid. Each teacher functions not alone but as a member of the team operating in each student's language-learning career.

General Observation about Sequences and Their Development

Extending the Sequence

There are two approaches to lengthening a sequence: from the top or from the bottom. If a year is added to a three-year sequence, it is usually done at the top. Often, however, the sequence must first be moved downward, for example, from the tenth to the ninth grade. Converting a three- or four-year sequence to a six- or nine-year program usually is best achieved by moving it downward one level at a time (building from the top). In this way, vigilance can be maintained to assure that the top of the sequence remains strong; this is necessary to prevent gaps or weaknesses in instruction, particularly at the levels closest to college entrance.

Multiple Sequences

A student can be enrolled in only one sequence of a given language; however, a school or school system can provide more than one sequence of that language. For example, if a school system has a nine-year sequence, a three- or four-year sequence also must be offered to provide for students who desire a second foreign language, who transfer into the system from elsewhere, or who initially are unsuccessful in the longer sequence but later wish to try again.

Counseling Students About Sequences

Decisions about language programs are usually made for the elementary school student. At the junior and senior high school levels, however, the student makes many of his own decisions; therefore, he must be kept well informed about the nature of the various sequences before and after he is enrolled in one of them. He should be told what to expect in the way of achievement at the end of the sequences, and he must be informed of the consequences of stopping too soon in the sequence in which he first enrolls. This information should be related to the basic benefits of language learning, further academic applications of language study, vocational interests, and the need for a sufficiently long period of study to achieve lasting skills. He also should be cautioned against taking the College Entrance Examination Board Achievement Tests in languages unless he has had at least three years in one language.

Flow Within Sequence

The various levels or years in a language sequence must build one upon the other in smooth, unbroken continuity. Texts and teaching approaches must be selected with this in mind. To compensate for the loss of language skills during summer vacations, the teacher should review the subject at the beginning of the fall semester to prevent disruptive gaps from occurring in the students' learning process. Above all, at the beginning of the year, the teacher should not assume that his students have achieved proficiency in the language. He must assess their abilities and teach from the point at which he finds them. Nothing is to be gained from adherence to a program or standards if the students' needs are not met.

The Drop-out or Failure Problem

All too often many students are lost from a sequence after the first two or three academic years or levels. The causes of this problem may lie beyond the jurisdiction of the foreign language teaching and administrative staff; sometimes, however, these causes are found within it: poor teaching, lack of coordination between levels, failure to meet the students' needs and interests, and the maintenance of standards which are too high. All concerned need to be constantly on guard to prevent student drop-out or failure problems. A long sequence cannot be maintained, nor the students' interests served if large numbers drop or fail foreign language courses. Despite the rapid development during the last decade of courses beyond the second level, the drop-out and failure rates are of such magnitude in most school systems that they demand immediate and exhaustive analysis.

Planning Programs

Certain guidelines that may assist in planning foreign language programs are found in Chapter IX, *Notes to the Administrator and the Counselor*, p. 100.

Problems to Be Aware of in Short Sequences

Obviously one of the dangers of the short sequence is the lack of sufficient time to provide students with thorough, fundamental instruction. A second is that the teacher feels compelled to provide all of the basics of the language in a short time and, consequently, inundates students with too much material. Thus, the emphasis is upon quantity of instruction, and quality suffers. Quality of instruction must take precedence over quantity to prevent students from failing unnecessarily or from becoming disillusioned with foreign languages.

Dangers in the Long Sequence

Although students in the long sequence (five years or more) may seem to be rather advanced young linguists, it must be remembered that they actually have had relatively brief contact with the foreign language. For example, a student who has studied French in junior and senior high school from the seventh through the twelfth grade (five levels, six years) has only spent approximately 1,300 hours with the language, including his homework time. That is less than two months of his life, spread over a period of six years, interrupted by lengthy summer vacations, and void of the native environment. Obviously, such students cannot be called "advanced."

The teacher cannot, therefore, select materials and techniques as if the students were native speakers. Another factor to keep in mind in the case of the long sequence is the age and maturity of the students. Sometimes they are capable of handling the language of the material selected, but they are not mature enough for the kind of thinking and the analysis which it requires. College teachers report that students who receive intensive literary exposure before they are mature enough to understand more than the plot are reluctant to be led through the same material again in order to seek a deeper meaning and value. Not only is their training superficial, but their attitudes are likely to be supercilious.

Every language teacher at every level from kindergarten through graduate instruction must make every effort, indeed seek and create opportunities, to coordinate all aspects of language instruction so that the student gets the highest return possible from his investment of time and energy.

CHAPTER VIII

INSTRUCTIONAL PERSONNEL

The Foreign Language Teacher

THE teacher is the key to what goes on in the classroom. He is the focal point, the unifying element. No matter how much technology invades the classroom in the form of equipment and materials, the teacher will always play the principal role in designing what the students receive.

The foreign language teacher's role has changed noticeably during the last decade. He is less a lecturer and more an orchestrator and a conductor. He is not on center stage, but is in the wings and on the apron, continuously engaging his students in a constant play of communication.

The significance of the teacher's role has become more outstanding. Because of the emphasis on oral as well as written skills and the linguistic basis which underlies foreign language teaching today, students' learning activities in the classroom are directed more by the teacher and less by the textbook. (This does not, however, diminish the importance of the textbook; the book has assumed a different role in classroom instruction.)

The new demands of language teaching necessitate a better trained teacher—a professional in every sense of the word. Local school administrators, state departments of education, and college language faculties all share responsibilities for producing this professional at the pre-service and in-service stages of training.

These new demands also highlight the teacher's responsibility to be constantly receptive to change, growth, and development. "What interests me," Stephen Freeman has said, "is whether the teacher stays alive and continues to shape his method, or whether he gradually lies down in his comfortable rut and permits his job to shape him and finally strangle him." [1]

Pre-service or undergraduate training is highly significant, but it is not a terminal stage in the teacher's preparation; in fact, it is no more than the initial step. The teacher's experience in the classroom, his contacts with fellow professionals, his new insights into the process of language learning, his reading, advanced study, travel, and many other factors make him a constantly changing individual. It is his implicit responsibility to remain alert, to expose himself to these influences, and to develop according to them.

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[1] Stephen A. Freeman, "What Constitutes a Well-Trained Modern Language Teacher?" *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXV, No. 4 (January, 1941), p. 293.

Qualifications of the Teacher

General

The basic qualities of a good teacher cannot be overlooked. He must, in addition to language proficiency, possess:

- A genuine interest in people
- Patience, understanding, sympathy, and warmth
- High standards of morality
- Enthusiasm for the profession and the subject
- Understanding of the role which a language plays in the education of the individual
- Capacity for self-evaluation and professional development
- Pride in the success of each student, regardless of his ability
- Wisdom to teach on a level which challenges students but does not exceed their capacity to comprehend and assimilate
- Ability to orient students to the goals and purposes of the course
- Creativity and imagination
- Vivacity and energy
- A sense of humor
- Neat appearance
- Ability to organize and plan
- Ability to give clear and concise directions
- Willingness to cooperate with fellow teachers and administrators
- Ability to serve as a good public relations person for his subject among students, colleagues, parents, and the public.

Specific

Modern Foreign Languages

This guide subscribes to the "Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages" as set forth by the Modern Language Association of America. See Appendix B, pp. 114-116.

The *Modern Language Journal* of October, 1966,[2] provides a full and comprehensive guide to the attainment of these qualifications and is an indispensable handbook for foreign language and education departments of colleges and universities. It is also of interest to foreign language teachers at every level of instruction.

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[2] "Guidelines for Teacher Education Programs in Modern Foreign Languages: an Exposition," *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 1, No. 6 (October, 1966).

Latin

Recommended qualifications for Latin teachers are presented in a tentative report submitted by a committee of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South. These qualifications, "Areas and Content of Competence," are found in Appendix C, pp. 116-118.

Basic Components of Undergraduate Foreign Language Education

It is not within the scope of this guide to delineate all of the courses and requirements which should comprise the undergraduate foreign language program for the preparation of teachers. There are, however, certain basic components or conditions which should be emphasized because of their essential nature:

- *Cooperation between the foreign language and the education departments.*

  It is important that these departments work together. This is often accomplished by a foreign language teacher who is fully or partially responsible to the education department, but whose specialization, by experience and training, is methodology. This instructor conducts a course in methodology and supervises student teachers.

- *Cooperation between college and pre-college instructors.*

  It is recommended that college foreign language instructors whose students become teachers observe high school language classes in order to become better acquainted with pre-college instruction.

- *Courses in methodology.*

  There is a crucial need for introducing courses in methodology in colleges which do not have them, and for improving many of the existing courses. To send a fledgling professional into the classroom, even as a student teacher, without some introduction to the procedures, materials, and facilities found there is folly; yet, foreign language teachers are permitted to assume classroom responsibilites without having had a course in basic methodology. Such a practice is unfair to the students and should not continue. If the foreign language profession is to attain the reputation of professionalism that it does not now fully enjoy, it must conduct itself as a profession and train its members adequately.

There is no lack of material for a course in methodology. Numerous texts, journals, manuals, and other references are available to language majors. They should become thoroughly familiar with the various textbooks and teaching materials in use in high schools throughout the country and be made to feel comfortable when working with them. They should also understand that the methodology class is the first step in a journey of professional self-development in foreign language teaching that should continue throughout their careers. They should be made aware of professional associations, consultative services, journals, and other resources available to them and be convinced of the importance of participation and involvement in language teaching affairs.

- *Development of listening and speaking skills in modern languages.*

  If the modern language profession is to accept as its goals of instruction development of fluency in the skills of listening and speaking, as well as in reading and writing, it must create teachers capable of using these skills:

- *Improving the student teaching program.*

  The following basic guidelines are presented to assist in establishing or improving student teaching programs:

  - The supervising or classroom teacher should be fully qualified as a successful instructor and as a fully dedicated professional.
  - Responsibilities for the student teaching program should be shared by the college supervisor (who is perhaps also the methods teacher), the local supervisor, and the classroom supervising teacher. The supervisors, college and local, should observe the student teacher's performance. These supervisors, the classroom teacher, and the student teacher, or various combinations of the four should confer frequently. The classroom teacher and the supervisors should both have a voice in the evaluation of the student teacher's performance.
  - Admission to the student teaching program should entail certain qualifications such as adequate language proficiency and consideration of personal qualifications (enumerated previously in this chapter). The college supervisor ultimately should be responsible for admitting students, and an interview between the supervising teacher and the student teacher is advisable.
  - It is desirable for practice teaching to be placed within a block of time comprising also the methodology class and, if possible, a demonstration class. The student in this block should be as free as possible of other classes and responsibilities so that he can devote his energies and thoughts to this period of orientation for his career.

- Although the classroom teacher should permit a certain amount of independence and freedom for the student teacher to try his wings, he is still responsible for the welfare of his students and of the student teacher. Rarely, if ever, should he leave the room while the student teacher is in charge.
- Experience with various levels of instruction and with more than one classroom teacher is advisable.
- Time must be provided for adequate planning and for follow-up conferences of the supervising and student teachers.
- Use of a variety of appropriate and coordinated teaching materials and equipment is essential.
- Use of videotape or other means of providing self-viewing and evaluation is desirable.
- Micro-teaching is useful in preparing students for entering the student teaching program.

Continuing Education

The necessity for continuing professional development beyond the undergraduate degree has already been emphasized. The means by which this may be accomplished range from reading a journal to taking a trip abroad.

There are more opportunities for professional growth available now than at any time in the past. For example:

- More and better professional journals and references
- Regional methodology and language development workshops for teachers with family responsibilities or financial limitations
- Increased scholarship aid
- Foreign travel and study that is less expensive than in former years
- National, state and regional conferences on language teaching
- Foreign language specialists to provide administrative and consultative services (most state education agencies include foreign language specialists).

Perhaps the major obstacle for many teachers who want to learn by availing themselves of in-service opportunities is lack of time. Teachers frequently are overloaded with clerical, curricular, and extracurricular duties. Professional people must have the time to think, plan, teach, influence, and be influenced by their colleagues. Much can be done to provide a better professional environment for teachers within the present framework of school organization (by use of teachers' aides and clerical assistants, and by assignment of fewer classes and students). Suggestions for providing better in-service opportunities for language teachers are as follows:

- Allotting a certain number of days annually for each teacher to attend conferences, visit college language departments, or observe outstanding teachers or special programs

- Providing a professional library, within the school, for language teachers. (If the complete library must be shared by several schools, the basic listings should be duplicated in individual schools.)
- Establishing a definite plan and framework for the local in-service program
- Bringing in speakers and leaders from other areas for in-service meetings
- Assigning teachers the responsibility for developing their own in-service programs
- Encouraging teachers to seek and take advantage of appropriate opportunities for self-improvement and offering compensation accordingly
- Urging teachers to attend state instructional conferences in foreign languages and providing, if possible, financial assistance for travel and lodging.

The Department Chairman

The responsibilities of the department chairman vary from school to school. This is necessary because of different administrative arrangements and availability of supervisory personnel. Some degree of organization in a department consisting of two or more instructors is essential so that one person can be designated to provide unity and leadership for teachers and to serve as a liaison between the instructional personnel and the administrative staff. Duties of the department head should include such responsibilities as:

- Providing supervisory and consultative services for teachers in the department.
- Providing leadership in planning and developing the in-service program.
- Orientation of new teachers to all phases of the foreign language program, including the use of materials and operation of electronic equipment.
- Serving on faculty curriculum committees.
- Assisting in the assignment of student teachers.
- Preparing orders for materials and equipment.
- Assigning and distributing materials and equipment.
- Supervising the use of the language laboratory by department members.

The Foreign Language Supervisor

All teachers, regardless of the size of their school system, can benefit from permanent consultative and supervisory services provided by a foreign language specialist.

The duties of the language supervisor in relation to specific areas and personnel include the following:

I. The Supervisor and the Schools

A. The Principals

1. Keeps the principal informed concerning all aspects of the language program within the school and throughout the system
2. Seeks additional information
3. Assists in selecting the department chairman
4. Assists in the placement and evaluation of student teachers
5. Assists in analyzing problems and evaluating results.

B. The Guidance Counselors

1. Keeps the counselors informed concerning all aspects of the program within the school and throughout the system
2. Solicits statistical data and information concerning student attitudes towards the foreign language program
3. Assists with public relations efforts and activities for foreign languages
4. Provides information about career opportunities and college needs
5. Stimulates communication between counselors and foreign language teachers.

C. The Department Chairmen

1. Appoints the department chairman to serve on systemwide advisory or planning committees for the foreign language program.

D. The Teachers

1. Leads and inspires the teachers
2. Fosters mutual respect and trust
3. Builds morale
4. Supplies pertinent information regarding developments in foreign language programs and instruction
5. Assists in solving teaching problems and in promoting professional growth
6. Provides opportunities for in-service education
7. Performs demonstration teaching
8. Encourages continuing education
9. Represents teachers to administrative staff

10. Maintains a supply of teaching materials and equipment
11. Establishes a system to take care of repairs for equipment
12. Assembles a professional library
13. Encourages participation in professional groups and activities
14. Observes classes in order to help and to learn.

II. The Supervisor and the Central Administrative Staff

A. Assists the central administrative staff in developing the budget
B. Helps employ foreign language teachers by conducting personal interviews with each candidate to assess language and language teaching proficiency
C. Assumes an advisory role in the discharge of teachers when necessary
D. Cooperates with all staff members in designing the educational program
E. Supervises the acquisition of equipment and materials.

III. The Supervisor and the Community

A. Keeps the community informed as to

1. Language offerings
2. Objectives of program
3. Changes which might provoke questions or cause misunderstandings
4. Grading system
5. Role of the textbook
6. Homework procedures
7. Progress made in the program.

B. Enlists parents' assistance with establishment of study habits and encouragement of child

C. Uses a variety of means of communication

1. PTA meetings
2. Form letters
3. Informal contacts
4. News articles and releases
5. Adult education foreign language classes
6. Demonstration classes
7. Invitations to observe program.

IV. The Supervisor and the Colleges

A. Is knowledgeable concerning college language entrance requirements or recommendations, expected performance of students, use of placement systems or tests, offerings, and training programs provided for teachers

B. Demonstrates a spirit of cooperation

C. Assumes leadership for enhancing communication between schools and colleges

D. Assists with placement and evaluation of student teachers

E. Possesses full comprehension of college as well as secondary and elementary problems and can discuss them constructively.

V. The Supervisor and the Foreign Language Profession

A. Cooperates with all groups within the profession

B. Reads professional journals and instructional publications

C. Contributes time and energy to professional organizations

D. Utilizes the services and information provided by various professional groups.

VI. The Supervisor and the Instructional Program

A. Stimulates curriculum development or suggests changes

B. Organizes and coordinates system-wide foreign language program

C. Has up-to-date information on research, makes results available to staff and teachers, and helps to determine applicability to program

D. Conducts research to analyze problems and seek solutions

E. Evaluates results of instruction.

VII. The Supervisor and the In-Service Program

A. Pre-school

1. Informs new teachers concerning

    a. The language program, its objectives, and organization
    b. The language class, its methods, texts, instructional aids, testing, and grading
    c. The operation, maintenance, and repair of the language laboratory
    d. Procurement of materials
    e. Roles of all instructional, supervisory, and administrative personnel having responsibility for the language program.

2. Reviews for the returning teacher any changes or new developments in the program.

B. During the School Term

1. Sponsors or conducts workshops and meetings

    a. Selects specific, manageable, and relevant topics

        b. Asks teachers to assist in planning and conducting meetings
        c. Brings in consultants, leaders, or speakers.
    2. Encourages and sets up inter-school and intra-school visits among teachers.

C. End of School Term

1. Analyzes and evaluates language program and instruction
2. Plans in-service for summer or following year in accordance with findings of evaluation.

D. Summer

1. Sponsors or conducts workshops on methodology or curriculum development
2. Stimulates advanced or remedial study and travel abroad.

The Foreign Language Specialist in the State Department of Education

The basic objective of the foreign language specialist in the State Department of Education is to coordinate the total foreign language program in the State in order to enhance the effectiveness of instruction for all students. His duties bring him into constant contact with teachers of all languages, levels, and types of schools. He is concerned with everything from basic language instruction at the most elementary level to the preparation of teachers and graduate programs. He is interested in unity, because unity is reflected in greater effectiveness of teacher and student. Although he often works with groups of instructors, he is also concerned with the individual teacher. He makes every effort to offer consultative assistance to the classroom teacher, and at the same time he benefits by keeping himself informed about problems and accomplishments in the classroom. The State supervisor's desk is located at a crossroads where many avenues converge. Because of this, he has access to a vast store of information and knowledge which he constantly makes available to anyone who needs or wishes it.

Although the State language specialist cannot assume local administrative responsibilities, nor can he be available to all teachers at all times, he works with individual teachers in a manner similar to that of the local supervisor.

Participation in Foreign Language Associations

When the teacher participates actively in professional organizations, he benefits himself and also makes a valuable contribution to the profession as a whole.

There are several associations which serve various purposes and interests of foreign language teachers. Some of these are listed in Appendix E, pp. 125-126. Any one of them is worthy of an individual's membership.

Conclusions

To be a teacher, one must always be a student. The implications of this statement present numerous challenges to each member of the profession. It is the responsibility of every foreign language teacher and supervisor to remain a pliable, growing, and maturing individual who is sensitive to the influences that can make his job more effective and gratifying.

CHAPTER IX

NOTES TO THE ADMINISTRATOR AND THE COUNSELOR

NOTES TO THE ADMINISTRATOR

THE study of foreign languages, at one time relegated solely to the college-bound student, has pervaded all ranges of pupil preparation and is considered to be an essential component of every child's education. Many high school administrators, cognizant of this development, have made foreign language study available to all students.

In addition, many administrators have strengthened their foreign language programs by providing for the following:

Curriculum

- Adaptation of the foreign language curriculum to meet current educational and vocational demands

  Many colleges require foreign language credits for admission. A student, therefore, who has studied a foreign language has a wider choice of schools; also, he is equipped with a tool which will be eminently useful for graduate programs in many areas of specialization.

  Aside from academic uses, knowledge of a foreign language has further practical application. In this age of international travel and expanded communication, numerous vocational opportunities await those who can speak a second language.

- Involvement of instructional personnel in curriculum development

  Increase in knowledge often produces revolutionary changes with the result that new concepts are born and old ones are discarded. The school administrator, faced with this phenomenon in many areas of the curriculum, often turns to the specialist for assistance: thus it is with foreign language study.

  The conscientious teacher has kept abreast of recent developments in foreign language learning and should be able to offer practical help in curriculum development and improvement.

- Experimentation in flexible scheduling

  In scheduling classes in foreign language, "a skill subject," frequency of periods should be carefully considered. Beginning. intermediate, and the majority of advanced classes should meet daily. For those classes, however, composed of students who have achieved a high degree of language proficiency, experimentation in scheduling should be encouraged. A course, for instance, offered only two or three periods a week and assigned one half unit of credit may be adequate for maintaining and strengthening language control. A student may be expected to gain such control at the conclusion of the tenth grade after uninterrupted study of one language since the third or fourth grade, or at the end of the eleventh grade after a continuous program in one language started at the seventh grade.

- Research relating to new teaching practices

In some instances, research projects should be instituted not only in entire schools and school systems by skilled researchers, but also by the teacher in the classroom, often with the help of the research specialist.

- Integration of foreign language offerings, where possible, with other curricular areas

Since language permeates all elements of a culture, it cannot be treated as a single entity, divorced from its environment, and shunted into an isolated niche. To be fully understood language should be viewed in relation to other areas of the curriculum.

In the elementary school where the child is still exploring all areas of his environment there is less need for specialization and more for integration. ". . . children should be made to feel that learning a language is not something apart from their program, but an integral part of it."[1] The advantages of a program correlated with other areas are reciprocal: the study of foreign languages enriches the child's total program which in turn, is enhanced by the contributions of the over-all curriculum.[2]

Some subjects with which a foreign language might be correlated in the elementary school are arithmetic, history, geography, music, art, and science.

Almost all areas of the intermediate and secondary school curriculum may be integrated to some degree with the foreign language program. If definite benefits are to be forthcoming however, there should be close communication between administrative and instructional personnel concerning lesson plans and use of time and space.

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[1] Mary Finocchiaro, *Teaching Children Foreign Languages* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), p. 132.

[2] *Loc. cit.*

- **Evaluation of new curriculum offerings and products**

Pressure on the administrator to introduce curriculum change comes from various sources. Perhaps the most persistent pressure is applied by agencies eager to have their materials tested in the classroom; however, whatever the source may be, any new offering or product should receive careful attention and evaluation.

Educational television programs, programmed teaching with its attendant use of machines, and team teaching have been beneficial in certain school systems where optimum conditions prevail; in others, lack of teacher preparation and orientation, shortage of materials, and absence of long-range planning and evaluations have led to confusion and disruption of instruction.

- Articulation of the foreign language program

With the growing trend toward introducing foreign languages into the curriculum in the elementary and intermediate grades, attention to articulation has become increasingly important.

A program started at any level should provide for continuing instruction in subsequent grades. In the elementary schools, for instance, a foreign language program should not be initiated unless adequate provisions for articulation are present.

Since a variety of sequences is possible (from kindergarten to twelfth grade) serious problems of articulation exist: "(1) between levels within a given sequence, (2) between sequences, and (3) in integrating different sequences at the more advanced levels." [8]

In an attempt to assist the administrator in problems concerning articulation of the foreign language program, a separate section on sequences has been included in Chapter VII, *Sequential Programs*, p. 73.

- Attention to community needs

Of paramount importance in relating a foreign language program to the needs of the community is knowledge of the presence and number of native speakers of other languages. There may be few or there may be many persons representing a single foreign culture. If the latter situation exists, the curriculum should include courses offering in-depth study of the foreign language predominant in the community. This offers several advantages: (1) The foreign born student is able to continue the study of his own native tongue and culture; and (2) all students have a greater opportunity to exchange cultural information.

If there is a transient population composed primarily of foreign speaking people, it may be advisable to offer instruction in *English as a Foreign Language*. Such instruction builds confidence in the student whose native tongue is not English. Learning may proceed slowly, if at all, for the foreign-born child who has to undergo a difficult adjustment to strange physical surroundings and cultural differences—the whole compounded by a magnitude of language problems as he attempts to communicate with teachers and classmates.

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[8] Curriculum Bulletin No. 27, State of Minnesota Department of Education, p. 27.

English as a Foreign Language is a subject which requires special materials and teachers well versed in foreign language methodology and techniques; the usual methods and materials employed in English classes are definitely insufficient for acquisition of adequate language skills by native speakers of other languages. To them English is a foreign language, and it should be taught accordingly.

- Periodic evaluation of the foreign language curriculum

Evaluation relies not only on observations of student behavior, questionnaires, interviews, and the results of standardized tests, but also on what is gleaned from follow-up studies of graduates and, where applicable, transfer students.

These studies should be comprehensive enough to provide the following information: 1) the student's foreign language accomplishment in educational and occupational fields; (2) the transfer student's ability to succeed in a foreign language class of the same level in another school; (3) the opinion of the student in regard to the foreign language instruction received and the modifications he would propose; and (4) the increases in personal values and standards that the student feels he has gained from foreign language study.

Paralleling the importance of follow-up studies is the need for an inquiry into the causes of student "drop-outs" from the foreign language program should the number involved warrant such action. An additional danger signal is raised if "drop-outs" or requests for transfers are concentrated in one area of the foreign language curriculum.

GUIDELINES FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAMS

The following guidelines are submitted to assist the administrator in his efforts to present a foreign language program of depth and quality:

Elementary Schools

1. The program should be available to all children.

2. Special language activities should be provided within the classroom to meet differences among students.
3. The instructor should be a language specialist with native or near-native language ability, and with professional training in elementary school teaching.
4. The language program should be an integral part of the regular school program and correlated with other curricular areas.
5. The prime consideration in the choice of a language offering should be the availability of a competent teacher; also, the language chosen should meet the needs of the community. For instance, if there are many native speakers of Spanish in the community, Spanish should be considered for the language offering.
6. As a rule, foreign language instruction in the elementary school should begin in the third or fourth grade; by this time the child has a firm grasp of his own language, yet still possesses flexibility of speech organs.
7. Although television instruction is offered, the services of a language specialist are still needed. In addition, the classroom teacher should have a supporting role in the program.
8. Adequate provision should be made for coordination of the program with those of the intermediate and secondary schools.
9. Continuity of instruction should be assured from grade to grade and from school to school. This guideline should apply to offerings, objectives, and methods.
10. Suitable and sufficient materials should be provided. In almost every elementary foreign language program, some commercial materials are used and many other locally prepared ones are necessary. It is extremely rare that a commercial package can supply the basis for total instruction without adaptation and supplementing. Those concerned with a foreign language program in the elementary schools, therefore, should be capable of assuming curriculum development responsibilities.

Secondary Schools

1. A three-year sequence in one foreign language should be a minimum offering within any curriculum leading to a high school diploma.
2. Once a three-year sequence in one language is established, a fourth year should be the next goal, and a second language might be considered.
3. So far as college entrance and other factors are concerned, it makes no difference which is the first language. The primary determinant in any case should be the availability of a good teacher who can effectively establish stability in the program.
4. If more than one language is offered and Latin is not the first language, it should be seriously considered as the second language.

5. Latin should be considered equivalent to any of the modern languages and should receive equal consideration with them in making decisions concerning curriculum.
6. Second, third, fourth, fifth, and even sixth languages might be added as four-year goals are met in existing programs; caution should be observed, however, in order not to affect adversely languages already established.
7. In localities where a foreign language is taught in the elementary schools, a second track in that foreign language must be provided at the high school level to meet the special needs of those students.
8. Students should be encouraged to:
   a. Complete at least three years of one foreign language before beginning a second.
   b. Plan their program so as to terminate their high school foreign language study during their senior year (if they are to continue it in college).
   c. Avoid college board achievement tests in foreign languages unless they have taken at least three years of a language.

Instructional Personnel

- Assessment of teacher's qualifications

During the initial interview for employment it is advisable that, whenever possible, an assessment be made of the language competency of the teacher with particular attention given to the areas of listening comprehension and speaking. If effective instruction is to be achieved, however, other factors should be considered in addition to language competency. For example, care should be exercised in employing native speakers since the ability to handle a language is not necessarily synonymous with good teaching. The native speaker, as any other teacher, should have the basic qualifications of a teacher and be knowledgeable in the latest teaching techniques. In addition, he should possess the following: (1) a sufficient command of English language skills to communicate with students, parents, and school personnel; and (2) an understanding of educational psychology as related to instruction in American public schools.

- Effective scheduling of teacher's time

Several items should be taken into consideration regarding teacher's schedules:

Placement of highly skilled teaching personnel in beginning classes. The learning experiences at this level determine, to a large degree, the student's attainment of preferred goals. That which is incorrectly learned must be unlearned: new habits must be established to replace old ones. Time is wasted because extra effort is required for relearning: even then, the first learning, more often than not, is never forgotten. It is at the beginning level, also, that student attitudes toward foreign language study are formed.

Arranging the new teacher's schedule so he may, if necessary, have the opportunity to view an experienced teacher in action in the classroom.

Assignment of the teacher according to his field of specialization, insofar as is possible and in keeping with the first recommendation of this series.

Scheduling of teacher, whenever possible, for foreign language classes only. Division of interests and energies seldom furthers total concentration and quality of instruction.

Avoidance of assigning one teacher to all classes of the same level.

- Pre-school and other in-service conferences

Consideration might be given to scheduling pre-school conferences after the teacher has spent several days in his classroom making lesson plans, preparing bulletin boards, and setting up class rolls. Questions and problems that may arise as the result of such work could be discussed during the conference and possibly answered and solved before the student's arrival.

- Utilization of community resources

There are people residing in many Virginia communities who are educated native speakers of various languages. These people, carefully selected, can give invaluable assistance to the teacher in both curricular and extracurricular activities. In the classroom they can help with pronunciation drills and presenting culture; they also can serve as an important bridge for the foreign-born student who enrolls in school and has little or no knowledge of the English language. Outside of class, they can assist with assembly programs and language club functions.

- Strengthening certification renewal

For purposes of certification renewal, the teacher should be required to do further work in the language or languages he teaches, in other languages, in teaching methodology, in linguistics, or in other courses having a direct bearing on his instructional activities.

- Placement, supervision, and evaluation of the student teacher

A crucial period in the training of a student teacher takes place when he begins active classroom instruction. What he observes and puts into practice often determines his success or failure as a teacher.

The student teacher should be placed under the supervision of a master teacher who not only effectively uses acceptable language instructional methods and techniques, but who also realizes the importance of constant observation and assistance. If the master teacher is to carry out his supervisory responsibilities, however, he should be provided with sufficient time to confer regularly with the student teacher.

The final evaluation of the student teacher's performance should be made by the local supervisor, the master teacher, and the college language teaching specialist who has periodically observed the student teacher in action.

Further discussion concerning student teaching is found in Chapter VIII, *Instructional Personnel*, p. 89.

- Dissemination of pertinent information

It is important that teachers receive information concerning institutes, college courses, conferences, meetings, travel, and other such opportunities which strengthen them as professionals and are reflected in better classroom instruction. It is also important that teachers be given advance notice of such opportunities that they might have time to plan their activities.

- Involvement of instructional personnel in budgetary matters

Instructional personnel should participate in plans for utilizing funds available to the foreign language department. Such participation assures more effective use of funds and a clearer understanding by the administrator of teacher and department needs. The teachers, in turn, become more knowledgeable concerning budgetary policies and procedures and the amount of funds available for department use and more realistic in their requests for financial assistance.

- Program for training substitute teachers

It would be advisable to consider a program for substitutes that not only orients them to the school organization but also acquaints them with the techniques and materials used in teaching foreign languages. Where the teacher has notified the administrator of an expected, protracted absence from class the substitute should be required to work with the teacher in the classroom prior to the latter's departure.

- Employment of a local supervisor or coordinator

In large school systems a more effective foreign language program exists when there is a language supervisor to coordinate the many facets of the program and assist teachers.

Adjacent school divisions might consider uniting their efforts and resources to appoint a language supervisor whose services would be shared by all concerned.

In Chapter VIII, *Instructional Personnel*, p. 89, the role of the supervisor is outlined in detail: it is recommended that the administrator give careful consideration to this particular section.

- Appointment of a department chairman

  In a large school or in a school where the language enrollment warrants it, consideration should be given to the appointment of a department chairman.

  The administrator should clarify the responsibilities of the department head and make them known to all language instructional personnel; in addition, he should provide sufficient time within the department chairman's schedule for discharging assigned duties.

  The role of the department chairman is described in detail in Chapter VIII, *Instructional Personnel*, p. 89.

- Arrangement for teachers' conferences for purposes of program coordination

  An effective sequential program requires coordination of the highest degree. Teaching activities of all classes at the same level and those of the several levels should be closely coordinated. To provide for this coordination, supervision should be constant. Regularly scheduled periods of time and adequate meeting space also should be allotted so that teachers might confer among themselves within the school and with teachers of other schools in the division regarding the overall instructional program.

Classroom

- Maximum use of classroom

  Language classrooms should be located in areas which are free from competing noise (from the band room, machine shops, street traffic).

  Care should also be taken to make certain that sounds within the classroom do not disrupt instruction; for example, the noise from a furnace blower or the excessive use of the public address system.

  Language classrooms and the language laboratory should be concentrated in one area of the school to facilitate exchange of materials, use of facilities, and movement of students through the corridors.

  If possible, the administrator should avoid assigning classes other than language classes to the laboratory. There are two reasons for this suggestion: (1) the laboratory, if it is of booth-type construction, hinders instruction because it prevents the interchange of ideas and information between the students themselves and between the students and teacher; and (2) expensive equipment is often damaged, thereby causing the laboratory to become inoperable for its intended purposes.

Adequate facilities should be provided for storage of equipment and materials.

Each language classroom should be furnished with an adequate supply of maps of the countries whose language is being studied.

Provision should be made for bulletin boards and tables for displaying realia and illustrative material.

Materials and Equipment

- Materials for implementation of successful instruction

Success in teaching a language is dependent upon an adequate supply of materials. In addition to textbooks, coordinated tapes are also essential for teaching modern foreign languages and are helpful in reinforcing instruction in Latin.

Each teacher should be assigned a tape recorder for his exclusive use!

Instructional materials should be distributed to teachers as early as possible before the opening of school. This procedure is particularly important for new teachers entering the school system and for experienced teachers using new materials. Both groups need the opportunity to become familiar with the content and methodology of the course, the teachers' manuals, the taped materials, and other related instructional aids.

It is equally necessary that all materials required for instruction be available for student use at the first class session or as soon as they are needed.

All teachers should participate in the selection of textbooks and should have access to information about the availability and nature of coordinated materials. Only on the basis of thorough knowledge of the materials can the teacher make judicious choices. Basic materials should be given first consideration when teaching aids are purchased.

Additional information on materials and equipment can be found in Chapter V, *Learning Aids and Materials*, pp. 55-62.

Evaluation of Instruction

- Classroom visitation

When the administrator makes his regular classroom observation he should expect to see language instruction which displays the following:

1. Careful lesson planning with periods of time allotted to various activities

2. Challenging teaching that allows for individual differences and abilities
3. Economic use of time and smooth "clock-work" organization
4. High pupil interest and motivation
5. Use of foreign language by teacher and pupils
6. Active participation by all students
7. Teacher direction, not monopolization, of classroom activities
8. Instruction geared to life situations at the students' level of interest
9. Teaching that exhibits pleasantry and personal warmth
10. Avoidance of translation
11. Emphasis on and instructional activities in all four skills of a modern language.

Parents

- Orientation of parents

Many parents, through their own experience, retain the image that a foreign language is learned by memorizing long lists of vocabulary words and verb conjugations and by filling voluminous pages with translation of the foreign language into English and vice versa. When their children study in a different manner, misunderstandings may arise. For purposes of clarification and in order to enlist the support of parents, it is recommended that the administrator or teacher inform all parents of students studying foreign languages as to: (1) the principles and objectives of the foreign language program, (2) the means which will be used to attain them, (3) the students' responsibilities, and (4) the need for parental cooperation and assistance. Devices for conveying this information include demonstration classes with an explanation by the teacher and/or a letter to the parents. A sample of such a letter is found in Appendix A, p. 114.

THE ROLE OF THE COUNSELOR

The counselor's major role is to provide individual counseling services for all students for the purpose of assisting them in self-understanding and in setting and attaining appropriate personal, educational, and vocational goals. To accomplish this the counselor must have an understanding of the individual students with whom he works and keep abreast of the changing society in which these students live.[4]

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[4] *Guidance Handbook for Virginia Schools,* Vol. 47, No. 11. Division of Special Services (Richmond: Virginia State Department of Education, 1965), p. 15.

"The changing society!" What import these three little words carry for those who teach and counsel today's student. Education which affords only a knowledge of self and the immediate environment no longer suffices if the youth of America are to understand and to fulfill the responsibilities of world citizenship. Learning must also make provision for a more thorough comprehension of other peoples, the way they live, and the countries they inhabit. Foreign language study is one of the most effective means by which such comprehension can be gained.

Since the learning of language remains, for the most part, not only an elective but also a selective subject and, therefore, not a requisite for a high school diploma,

> . . . many students may be "guided" into, out of, or away from such a course by the school counseling service. It goes without saying that those who give such counsel assume the responsibility of possessing an intimate knowledge of the areas in which language learning differs from other disciplines if they are to counsel wisely.[5]

Entire language sequences have, at times, been removed from the school curriculum because students have evidenced decreasing interest in registering for the courses. The following misconceptions held by some counselors about foreign languages in general may have misled some students:

Certain languages are "better" than others.

The fact is that no language can claim superior social acceptability. Tastes differ widely, and what may be accepted by one group of people may be rejected by another group within the same community. "Any language, well learned, will be useful in itself, and will facilitate the learning of another."[6]

Certain languages are easier to learn than others.

Languages and talents vary; therefore, that which seems easy to one student may be difficult for another and vice versa.

Grave injustice is done to the language student, teacher, and program if the counselor's only criterion for planning a student's program is based on subjective matching of course content and student ability. As a rule, a student should not be allowed to drop one language due to academic difficulties alone and then to enroll in another. The problems will be compounded, not solved.

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[5] Brooks, *op. cit.*, p. 69.

[6] Ilo Remer, *A Handbook for Guiding Students in Modern Foreign Languages*, Bulletin 1963, No. 26 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 46.

The Latin language is outmoded in relation to present-day demands and is decreasing in stature at the college level.

The significance of modern language study to modern living is quite obvious; however, this should not detract from the value of classical language learning. "The term *classical* is applied to those tongues which, once widely used, are not quiescent but continue to carry literary, philosophical, scientific, and etymological values." [7]

In addition, Latin, a classical language and the one most readily available to the student in American schools, is of practical worth since it gives an insight to the vocabulary and basic structure of the Indo-European language family of which English is a member.

> Figures taken from a 1966 survey conducted by the Modern Language Association of America disprove the old canard that Latin is generally unacceptable for both admission to and graduation from the colleges. Of 386 institutions requiring a foreign language for admission only 11 insist that it be a modern foreign language; 13 require that the language be Latin, and 15 require a combination. Similarly, of the 1059 institutions requiring a foreign language for graduation only 27 will not accept Latin; there are four which actually require Latin, and 10 which want both Latin and a modern foreign language. It is plain that for the overwhelming majority Latin is just another foreign language—and that is as it should be. This information deserves the widest circulation possible among Latin teachers and students; it should also be brought to the immediate attention of guidance counselors.[8]

Criteria frequently used to predict success in foreign language learning include "test scores in scholastic aptitude, intelligence quotient, ability in English, and foreign language aptitude." [9] None of these criteria, however,

> . . . singly or in combination, is of sufficient validity to justify its use as a basis for exclusion of potential language students. Anyone able to use his native language to conduct the ordinary affairs of life can also acquire a reasonable competence in a second language, if given sufficient time and opportunity to do so and if sufficiently motivated. A tryout of a semester or a year in the foreign language to be studied is regarded as the best predictor of success.[10]

The counselor should give careful consideration to the following:

- Although it is recommended that every child be given the opportunity to participate in a foreign language program when it is offered at the elementary school level, the child should not be forced to continue such study if he displays unusual emotional or academic difficulties.

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[7] Pei, *op. cit.*, pp. 42-43.

[8] Konrad Gries, "The Colleges and Latin," *The Classical Outlook*, XLIV, (September, 1966), p. 3.

[9] Remer, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

[10] *Ibid.*, pp. 15-16.

- Care should be exercised in admitting to the foreign language program a student with a serious speech or hearing handicap since the demands of language learning may aggravate the existing handicap and lead to emotional disturbances. The handicap, however, should not be the sole basis to deny any interested student the opportunity to learn something of a foreign language and culture. Instead, provisions should be made for individual differences in learning and for evaluating achievement accordingly. The counselor should inform the teacher of a student's speech or hearing problem.
- A college-bound student should be enrolled in the foreign language program; however, this alone should not be the determining factor for admission to the program. The opportunity to study a foreign language should not be denied any interested student.
- A student who has demonstrated special language aptitude should be encouraged to enroll in a second language course while still continuing the study of the first; however, it is generally not advisable for a student to begin simultaneously the study of two languages. Three years of separation of beginning courses is usually recommended.
- A student who is already adept in a foreign language should be encouraged to continue the study of that language.

Career opportunities for those possessing a knowledge of foreign language skills have increased enormously and are found in many vocations. If a student is to realize the practical use of foreign language study, he must be kept informed of such opportunities. Two bulletins which might be helpful to the counselor are *Translating Foreign Languages into Careers* by Richard D. Hardesty and *Vocational Opportunities for Foreign Language Students* by Gibert C. Kettlekamp.[11]

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[11] Further information concerning these bulletins can be obtained from the Materials Center, The Modern Language Association of America, 62 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10011.

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO PARENTS

Dear Parent:

We should like to welcome your child to the foreign language program at __________________ School and to offer you some information about his activities as a language student.

For the first several weeks of school your child may not have written homework in the language. We plan to teach the sound system of the foreign language first. To avoid interference with our own English sound system, reading and writing in the foreign language will not be introduced immediately.

You need not be concerned, however, that these two skills will be overlooked. We believe that students should learn to comprehend, speak, read, and write a foreign language. We will endeavor to see that they achieve these objectives. We also want them to learn much about the people who speak the language natively.

During the prereading period, your child will occasionally be asked to listen to and practice with records which he can purchase or borrow and to do limited research projects related to the culture, geography, and history of the people whose language he is studying. When he does begin to read and write, his written homework in the language will be somewhat different from that to which you are probably accustomed. This, too, will be deliberate and a necessary part of our instruction.

We solicit your interest in and support of our program. We hope that there will be an opportunity for you to observe a language class in action during the year, and we shall welcome any questions which you might have.

APPENDIX B

QUALIFICATIONS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES*

COMPETENCE	Superior	Good	Minimal
Listening Comprehension	Ability to follow closely and with ease all types of standard speech such as rapid or group conversation and mechanically transmitted speech.	Ability to understand conversation of normal tempo, lectures, and news broadcasts.	Ability to get the sense of what an educated native says when he is making a special effort to be understood and when he is speaking on a general and familiar subject.

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*PMLA (*Publications of the Modern Language Association of America*), Vol. LXXVII, No. 4, Part 2 (September, 1962), pp. 31-37.

APPENDIX B—Continued

COMPETENCE	Superior	Good	Minimal
Speaking	Ability to speak fluently, approximating native speech in vocabulary, intonation, and pronunciation. Ability to exchange ideas and to be at ease in social situations.	Ability to talk with a native without making glaring mistakes, and with a command of vocabulary and syntax sufficient to express one's thoughts in conversation at normal speed with reasonably good pronunciation.	Ability to read aloud and to talk on prepared topics (e.g., for classroom situations) without obvious faltering, and to use the common expressions needed for getting around in the foreign country, speaking with a pronunciation understandable to a native.
Reading	Ability to read almost as easily as in English material of considerable difficulty.	Ability to read with immediate comprehension prose and verse of average difficulty and mature content.	Ability to grasp directly (i.e., without translating) the meaning of simple, nontechnical prose, except for an occasional word.
Writing	Ability to write on a variety of subjects with idiomatic naturalness, ease of expression, and some feeling for the style of the language.	Ability to write a simple "free composition" such as a letter, with clarity and correctness in vocabulary, idiom, and syntax.	Ability to write correctly sentences or paragraphs such as would be developed orally for classroom situations and to write a simple description or message without glaring errors.
Applied Linguistics	The "good" level of competency with additional knowledge of descriptive, comparative, and historical linguistics.	The "Minimal" level of competency with additional knowledge of the development and present characteristics of the language.	Ability to apply to language teaching an understanding of the differences in the sound systems, forms, and structures of the foreign language and English.
Culture and Civilization	An enlightened understanding of the foreign people and their culture, such as is achieved through travel and residence abroad, through study of systematic descriptions of the foreign culture, and through study	The "Minimal" level of competency with first-hand knowledge of some literary masterpieces and acquaintance with the geography, history, art, social customs, and contemporary civiliza-	An awareness of language as an essential element of culture and an understanding of the principal ways in which the foreign culture differs from our own.

APPENDIX B—Continued

COMPETENCE	Superior	Good	Minimal
	of literature and the arts.	tion of the foreign people.	
Professional Preparation	A mastery of recognized teaching methods, evidence of breadth and depth of professional outlook and the ability to experiment with and evaulate new methods and techniques.	"Minimal" level of competency plus knowledge of the use of specialized techniques, such as audiovisual aids, and of the relation of language teaching to other areas of the curriculum. Ability to evaluate the professional literature of foreign language teaching.	Knowledge of the present-day objectives of the teaching of foreign languages as communication and an understanding of the methods and techniques for attaining these objectives.

APPENDIX C

AREAS AND CONTENT OF COMPETENCE [for Latin Teachers]*

Pronunciation

Minimal: The ability to read texts aloud according to our best evidence for classical Latin pronunciation.

Superior: The ability to read Latin authors aloud with comprehension and appropriate rhythm and phrasing, heeding principles of audible linguistic change: restored classical Latin for Golden Age literature; Italian pronunciation for medieval and late Latin.

Reading

Minimal:
1. Idiomatic English control of basic classical Latin vocabulary and idiom.
2. Intimacy with characteristic styles of Caesar (*Bellum Gallicum*), Cicero (*Orations*), and Vergil (*Aeneid*) or such authors as may be agreed upon as a basic core for the first two years of Latin.

Superior:
1. Familiarity with Cicero's style in essays and letters.
2. Acquaintance with Sallust, Livy, and Lucretius: the first two for style, the last for content.

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* James A. Hitt, chairman, a committee of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, "Standards for the Training of Latin Teachers," *The Classical Journal* (May, 1967), pp. 344-345.

3. Acquaintance with the major Augustan poets (Horace, Ovid, Tibullus, Propertius) as well as their predecessor Catullus, "acquaintance" to include metrics, sources, interrelationships.
4. Some familiarity with the *Eclogues* and *Georgics.*
5. Some knowledge of Tacitus and Juvenal.

Writing

Minimal:

1. The ability to translate simple sentences from English into Latin, using correct grammatical forms and some attention to style in the manner of Cicero.
2. The ability to use correctly the basic Latin structures of case and mood.

Superior:

1. The ability to translate continuous paragraphs into idiomatic Latin, presupposing a real familiarity with a good textbook of Latin prose composition.
2. Ultimately, the ability to compose letters, speeches, or essays in the style of Ciceronian Latin.

Linguistics

Minimal:

1. An elementary knowledge of general linguistics.
2. Some acquaintance with historical and comparative Greek and Latin grammar or certainly English and Latin grammar.
3. At least one year of Greek.

Superior:

1. The equivalent of a year's study in historical and comparative Greek and Latin grammar.
2. A minor or second major in Greek.

Classical Civilization

Minimal:

1. Roman history, at least from the founding of the city through the Augustan age.
2. Early Greek and Roman legends: of the Trojan War, of the Argonauts, of early Roman heroes.
3. Topography of Greece, Athens, Crete, Delphi, Italy, Rome.
4. Archaeological discoveries and their contributions to the continually growing knowledge of early Rome, Pompeii, Troy, Crete, and Mycenaean Greece.
5. The major acomplishment of the Greeks and Romans in literature, art, architecture, and engineering.
6. Roman private and public life; houses, dress, orna-

ments, amusements, customs; public duties, court procedures, governmental agencies and operations.

7. Roman military organization, tactics, ranks, dress, equipment, and camp construction.
8. Greek and Roman mythology.

Superior:
1. The influence of Greek and Roman myth upon art and literature throughout the ages and its inspiration in the creation of specific works of literature or art.
2. The specific contributions to the world of archaeology of such individuals as Schliemann, Blegen, Evans, and Maiuri.
3. Greek and Roman religious and philosophical thought.
4. Ultimately, a broader and deeper experience of all areas of scholarship relating to Greek and Roman life, history, literature, art, architecture, and archaeology needed as background for the enriched teaching of the various levels of Latin instruction in the secondary school. It would be assumed that part of this competence would be derived from study and travel abroad, from continuing personal scholarship, and acquaintance with current publications on classical subjects.

Professional Awareness

Minimal:
1. Participation in professional classical organizations.
2. An understanding of the present-day emphases in teaching of the classics.
3. Instruction in the methods of teaching Latin under the auspices of a college classics department.
4. Six hours of practice teaching under the supervision of a qualified secondary school Latin teacher.
5. The ability to evaluate and use teaching materials, methods, and techniques with enthusiasm, imagination, and effectiveness.

Superior: Knowledge of and contribution to the professional literature of classical studies and teaching problems in Latin.

APPENDIX D

EVALUATIVE CRITERIA FOREIGN LANGUAGES*

Guiding Principles

The foreign language program in today's schools may include both classical and modern languages. The languages to be taught are selected after considering their educational value, the cultural insights to be gained from them, and, where applicable, their vocational use, the extent of their use by the peoples of the world, and the potential contribution to our society of a working knowledge of them.

It is desirable for students to gain an understanding of the linguistic and cultural heritages of our country derived from both the Eastern and Western hemispheres, and from Latin and Greek, in order to gain a better understanding of our own culture and of the problems of concern to our country.

Now and in the foreseeable future, our society sorely needs many people who can use a foreign language adequately. Some scientific concepts, psychological insights, cultural analyses, and writing about economics that are necessary to our progress as a people and as a society are available only in foreign literature.

The study of a foreign language is a progressive experience and implies progressive acquisition of linguistic skills. Skills grow rusty with disuse; but when learned thoroughly and with understanding, they can be reactivated quickly, given the proper stimuli and environment. The values to be gained from language learning will be related to the amount of time and effort devoted to it and to the learner's motivation.

Skills to be mastered include: (1) increasing ability to *understand* the foreign language when spoken, (2) increasing ability to *speak* it, (3) ability to *read* it with increasing ease and enjoyment, and (4) the increasing ability to *write* it. The acquisition of these skills will result in a new understanding of the concept of *language*.

The study of another language usually brings about a gradually expanding and deepening knowledge of the country or countries—people, geography, history, social institutions, literature, and culture --and, as a consequence, a better perspective of our own culture through adjustment to the concept of cultural similarities and differences.

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I. ORGANIZATION

1. Foreign language courses are available to all students.
2. Course counseling is provided by staff members acquainted with foreign language education.
3. Class size is limited so that each member participates in some type of oral activity daily.
4. Such factors as interest, motivation, and the discriminating use of aptitude tests are employed to encourage students to elect foreign languages.
5. Opportunity is provided for a four-year sequence in at least one foreign language.
6. A carefully articulated language program is provided from elementary through senior high school.
7. More than the usual four-year sequence of language study is provided for those who began study of a foreign language in elementary school and are continuing its study in high school.
8. Language programs of students are planned to avoid a gap between the end of foreign language study in high school and its continuation in college.
9. Supervisory assistance is provided to coordinate the foreign language program.
10. All foreign language teachers are encouraged to aid in the development of the foreign language curriculum.
11. Students pursue the study of one foreign language for a longer sequence of time (three or four years) rather than studying two languages for shorter sequences, say, of two years each.
12. A minimum sequence of three years of one foreign language is offered before additional languages are added to the program.
13. Individual instruction or special classes are available to the gifted student.
14. Teachers at the same grade level plan together to develop the foreign language program at that level.

II. NATURE OF OFFERINGS

1. The materials used to teach foreign languages lead to the development of the four skills in the following sequence: listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.
2. Sociolinguistic comparisons and teaching materials include references to the social customs of the people speaking the foreign language.
3. Comparisons of languages and cultures are related to international conditions whenever possible.
4. Emphasis in modern language activities is upon the language as a means of communication.

5. *Listening* activities stress the values to be gained from the materials as well as the development of the listening skill.
6. *Reading* activities stress the values to be gained from the materials as well as the development of skill.
7. Appropriate literary selections are included, with stress on the use of the contemporary materials.
8. Bilingual backgrounds of students are recognized in planning language offerings.
9. The Advanced Placement Program is introduced generally after the students have had four years of intensive audio-lingual training in the language and there is a well-qualified language teacher, and when there is an alternative program provided at the advanced level for those students who have other than purely literary objectives for learning a language.

III. PHYSICAL FACILITIES

1. Language laboratory facilities are provided for regularly scheduled practice use by foreign language students.
2. Language classrooms and laboratory facilities, if separate, are located adjacent to each other and in a quiet area of the school.
3. Provision is made for servicing and maintenance of all foreign language equipment.
4. Audio-visual equipment, such as film projectors, filmstrip and slide projectors, overhead projectors, tape recorders, record players, and short-wave radios, is provided for the use of the department.
5. New technological aids are examined and evaluated.
6. Language classrooms are equipped for the effective use of intructional media.
7. Facilities for making and duplicating tapes are available to teachers.
8. The foreign language classroom contains attractively displayed materials that reflect the culture of the countries concerned.
9. A display area is provided within the school to exhibit foreign language projects.
10. Readily accessible shelf space is provided for instructional materials.
11. Filing equipment is provided.
12. Language classrooms are provided with sufficient chalkboard space.
13. Language classrooms are provided with sufficient bulletin board space.
14. Central storage space is provided for the department.

IV. DIRECTION OF LEARNING

A. Instructional Staff

Members of the foreign language staff:

1. Understand foreign language conversation of normal tempo, lectures, and news broadcasts.
2. Speak the foreign language fluently with authentic pronunciation, intonation, and rhythm.
3. Read with immediate comprehension (without translating) prose and verse of average difficulty and mature content.
4. Write (compose) freely in the foreign language, with clarity and correctness in vocabulary, idiom, and syntax.
5. Understand the structure of both English and the foreign language and how they differ, and use this knowledge in curriculum planning.
6. Have an understanding of similarities and differences between our culture and the foreign culture.
7. Have studied in a country where the language is or once was commonly used.
8. Have traveled in a country where the language is or once was commonly used.
9. Have had preparation in modern methods of teaching foreign language.
10. Maintain acquaintance with recent developments in teaching foreign language through professional reading.
11. Are continuing in-service education or are participating in activities designed to improve their foreign language teaching.
12. Participate in professional associations.
13. Are familiar with resource guides.
14. Are aware of the services provided by foreign language consultants in the state department of education and in colleges and universities.
15. Are able to assist the librarian in the selection of appropriate foreign language materials.
16. Help foreign exchange teachers and students to adjust to the school and encourage them to act as resource persons in the foreign language program.
17. Demonstrate ability to use visual and electronic teaching aids.
18. Exhibit an understanding of and concern for the needs of the students.
19. Know how to use aptitude tests for diagnosing student strengths and weaknesses in the learning of a foreign language.

B. Instructional Activities

1. Clearly formulated objectives for the teaching of a foreign language have been developed.

2. Instructional practices reflect objectives at each level of instruction.
3. Careful planning and preparation for teaching are evident.
4. A variety of practice exercises, drill techniques, and other activities are employed for the progressive development of all language skills.
5. Student needs and interests are considered in planning instruction.
6. Objectives and methods of learning the language are clearly explained to students.
7. There is evidence of individualization of instruction through such techniques as self-instructional units, individual study, and small-group work.
8. Instructional activities reflect the maximum use of the foreign language by students and teacher.
9. Wherever possible, there is correlation with other subjects.
10. Correspondence and tape exchanges with students of the foreign country are encouraged.
11. Advanced students are encouraged to write and compose in the foreign language.
12. There is emphasis on the learning of vocabulary in context rather than in isolation.
13. Foreign language resources in the community are used.
14. The language laboratory is regularly used in the instructional process.
15. Audio-visual aids are used as an integral part of instruction.
16. Use is made of library resources in achieving the objectives of the courses.
17. Classroom conversation in the foreign language deals both with everyday situations and with informational and literary materials heard and read, depending on the level of instruction.
18. Sensitivity to the foreign culture is fostered throughout the language sequence by having the students become acquainted with the daily life and customs of the people and their contributions to all fields of human endeavor.
19. Cocurricular activities such as language clubs, assemblies, dramatic productions, films, and folk dancing are sponsored.
20. The development of the language skill to be mastered is reinforced by explanations and generalizations concerning its structure.
21. Students are encouraged to attend foreign language summer programs.
22. Display materials on bulletin boards are integrated with the ongoing activities of the foreign language classes.
23. Students with foreign language aptitude have counseling available about possibilities of continuing in advanced foreign language courses in high school.

24. Students with foreign language aptitude have counseling available about possibilities of continuing postsecondary study.

C. Instructional Materials

1. The teaching materials selected are carefully integrated and articulated from level to level.
2. In selecting teaching materials and activities, consideration is given to the maturity and understanding of students.
3. The foreign language program uses a variety of materials on tape and in print to provide for the individual differences among class members.
4. Instructional materials help the student understand the structure of the foreign languages.
5. The following materials are up to date and easily available to staff and students:

   Integrated materials such as tapes, text materials, teacher's guides, workbooks, audio-visual aids, classroom tests, and individual take-home recordings.

   Supplementary listening and reading materials and self-instructional units that provide for differences in the abilities, interests, and achievement levels among the students.

   Collections of such resources as bilingual and monolingual dictionaries, encyclopedias, and reference grammars geared to the age level and interests of the students.

   Foreign language materials, such as periodicals and newspapers and young people's magazines and comic books.

   Wall maps with foreign names, travel literature, foreign advertisements, posters, postcards, calendars, samples of foreign money and foreign products, games used in the foreign country, and other appropriate paraphernalia.

   Professional recordings of literary, informational, and musical materials.

   Transparencies, filmstrips, slides, films, pictures.

   Books in English dealing with the country whose language is being learned.

   Teacher-prepared foreign language curriculum guides, source lists, and other materials.

   Professional and reference materials for teacher use.

D. Methods of Evaluation

1. Evaluation of students' progress is an integral part of language teaching.
2. The primary objectives of evaluation are to identify and diagnose problems, to guide instruction, and to measure achievement.

3. The skills are tested by techniques appropriate to the skill and to the level of instruction.
4. Knowledge of foreign language structures is tested separately.
5. The purpose of each evaluative activity is clear to the students and to the teacher.
6. Evaluative techniques and activities simulate authentic language situations.
7. Evaluative activities, especially in the speaking skill, are conducted daily but are not always in the nature of formal tests.
8. The four skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing) are evaluated in proportion to the emphasis which they receive in instruction.
9. Instructional procedures and evaluative techniques are similar in nature and in degree of difficulty.
10. A variety of evaluative techniques are [*sic*] used.
11. Opportunities are provided for students to evaluate their own work.
12. The record of achievement of students in subsequent high school and college language courses is taken into consideration in the evaluation of the total language program.
13. Appropriate standardized tests are used.

APPENDIX E

FOREIGN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATIONS

American Association of Teachers of French
972 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10021

American Association of Teachers of German
Colgate University, Hamilton, New York 13346

American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese
Wichita State University, Wichita, Kansas 67208

American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages, Department of Slavic Languages, Brandeis University, Waltham, Massachusetts 02154

American Classical League
Miami University, Oxford, Ohio 45056
also
Dr. John F. Latimer, Executive Secretary, American Classical League, The George Washington University, Washington, D. C. 20006

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
62 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10011

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
Institute of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University,
Washington, D. C. 20007

The Modern Language Association of America
4 Washington Place, New York, New York 10003

The National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations is not a membership organization, but it publishes *The Modern Language Journal.* The Federation's address is 13149 Cannes Drive, St. Louis, Misssouri 63141.

Information about The Modern Foreign Language Association of Virginia and the state chapters of the national foreign language associations can be obtained from the Foreign Language Service, State Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia 23216.

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